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ABSTRACT

Selected papers from the conference address four priorities in second language teaching: teacher education; instruction; curriculum; and testing. Papers include: "Listening Processes and Authentic Texts" (Donna Reseigh Long); "Directory of Foreign Language Teacher Preparation Programs in the United States: A Preliminary Report" (Christine Uber Grosse, David P. Benseler); "Classroom Activities: Increase the Challenge" (Claudette Cote-Moran); "FLES Program Evaluation: Rationale and Procedural Design" (Audrey L. Heining-Boynton); "An Uncommon Internship: Exploring Options in Careers Enhanced by Foreign Language Skills" (Lynn P. Bryan); "Afro-Hispanic Literature: Cultural and Literary Enrichment for the Foreign Language Classroom" (Stanley A. Cyrus, June M. Legge); "Practical Second-Language Applications of the Theoretical Foundations of French Immersion in Canada" (Adel Safty); and "Creative Written Testing" (Kathleen G. Boykin). (MSE)

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SCOLT

SOUTHERN CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGE TEACHING

ACTING ON PRIORITIES: A COMMITMENT TO EXCELLENCE

DIMENSION: LANGUAGES '90

David P. Benseler
Kathleen G. Boykin
Lynne B. Bryan
Stanley A. Camus
Christine Uber Grosse
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Edited by
Robert M. Terry

REPORT OF SOUTHERN CONFERENCE
ON LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Once the session proposal has been accepted, the presenter(s) is (are) contacted by the Editor and invited to submit an article for publication in *Dimension.* Upon notification of interest, copies of the publication guidelines are sent to the presenter(s). Upon receipt of four copies of the manuscript, the articles submitted are then sent, with the authors' names removed, to the nationally prominent SCOLT Editorial Board, and each article is read by at least three of these specialists. Normally articles are sent to reviewers who have expertise in the area treated by the article. The reviewers are asked to make one of three recommendations: 1) publish as is; 2) publish after rewriting; or 3) do not publish. As a result of this procedure, at least thirteen (13) individuals decide whether or not to include the oral presentation in the annual meeting, and then a different four (4) people read and approve the article before it is selected to appear in *Dimension.*

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INTRODUCTION

The theme of the 1990 joint conference between The Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT) and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) held in Nashville, Tennessee, was "Acting on Priorities: A Commitment of Excellence." The 1990 conference theme refers to the national priorities that were addressed in the 1989 ACTFL Priorities Conference that met in Boston before the 1989 ACTFL Annual Meeting.

There were seven priorities and related strands identified at the Priorities Conference: Research, Teacher Education, Instruction (including new technologies and FLES), Curriculum (including articulation, art, literature, and culture), Public Relations, Classics, and Testing. Internationally-recognized scholars and foreign-language educators were asked to write position papers on aspects of these seven priorities.

In this 1990 volume of *Dimension: Languages '90,* we offer a range of articles that address four of the seven priorities: Teacher Education, Instruction, Curriculum, and Testing.

Teacher education, both pre-service and in-service, is a *sine qua non* for effective foreign language teaching. In the United States, however, we are beginning to suffer a shortage of qualified teachers. Christine Über Grosse and David P. Benseler, in their article "Directory of Foreign Language Teacher Preparation Programs in the United States: A Preliminary Report," give us a progress report on the preparation of this Directory. This work is being compiled incorporating the results of a questionnaire on certification requirements that was sent to all state departments of education and other questionnaire sent to colleges and universities that have state-approved foreign language teacher education programs at the graduate and undergraduate levels. This Directory will provide a much-needed reference source for teachers and administrators. The authors have identified 773 institutions with teacher education programs in foreign languages, including the names of contact persons at each institution. They will also summarize the certification rules and regulations for each state as well as reciprocity agreements among states.

Four articles in this volume address Instruction, another of the seven priorities. Donna Reseigh Long presents the results of her study on listening comprehension in the article "Listening Processes and Authentic Texts." In this article, Long addresses what students say they think about when listening to authentic texts. She focuses on the introspective commentaries of six subjects on a single authentic video text in Spanish. The subjects viewed the text, then stated the main idea and as many details as they could remember, commenting on how they were able to extract meaning from the text.

In "Classroom Activities: Increase the Challenge," Claudette Côté-Moran presents four different activities that can be used in the foreign language classroom in small or large groups. Each of the activities can have several variations, making them applicable to most levels of language study. Al of the activities stress the specific purpose of the activity, individual contributions, and group support in decision-making while offering the elements of excitement and competition.

For this volume, Audrey L. Heining-Boynton has written "FLES Program Evaluation: Rationale and Procedural Design." Since FLES (Foreign Languages in the Elementary Schools) is undergoing a renaissance in many school systems today, Heining-Boynton points out the importance of and need for program evaluation, beginning with a rationale for the process. Of primary importance in program evaluation is feedback and accountability. She mentions the theory behind evaluation design and offers suggestions for moving from theory to practice. As she states, "Effective program appraisals contribute vital knowledge about the health of FLES as well as concrete documentation of successes."

Lynne B. Bryan, in "An Uncommon Internship: Exploring Options in Careers Enhanced by Foreign Language Skills," discusses the contributions that Foreign language skills can bring to a chosen career. These contributions are based on First-hand information provided by students who have participated in a credit-granting internship program at Macon College (GA). In this program students must formulate a project which will prepare them for employment while they carry out research on potential employment possibilities using career materials made available in the foreign language department's resource center. Bryan also provides some case studies prepared by students.

Another priority, Curriculum, is addressed by Stanley A. Cyrus and June M. Legge in "Afro-Hispanic

Literature: Cultural and Literary Enrichment for the Foreign Language Classroom." Two of the strands of this priority are literature and culture. This article recommends broadening the field of Hispanic Studies to include the Afro-Hispanic world, including *mestizaje*, as exemplified in black Latin American literature. The authors discuss the principal traits of such literature and offer a chronological approach to the authors mentioned. As the authors point out, ". . .literature is one of the major instruments in aiding students to develop a broader point of view and in promoting understanding of diverse cultures."

Adel Safty addresses the Curriculum priority in the article "Practical Second Language Applications of the Theoretical Foundations of French Immersion in Canada." Safty gives us a global view of French immersion programs as they have developed in Canada since 1965 as well as the impact that such programs have had on more traditional approaches to foreign language teaching. The article also discusses the principles of French immersion programs and the practical applications to be found in teaching French as a second language.

The final article in this volume, "Creative Written Testing" by Kathleen G. Boykin, addresses another of the seven priorities, Testing. In this article, the author deals with the move away from more traditional forms of testing in today's proficiency-oriented classrooms. Boykin advocates being creative in preparing tests and allowing creativity on the part of students in taking tests. She gives samples of both artistic and "mental" creative test items for purely written testing, as well as guidelines to be used when students are allowed to be creative on their tests.

The ten authors who have contributed to *Dimension: Languages '90* clearly illustrate the efforts that are being made today by foreign language educators in addressing the seven priorities singled out by ACTFL. Foreign language education and study must not be stagnant. With today's focus on the proficiency-oriented classroom, we see that changes are being made, that foreign language education is willing to go beyond tradition by questioning it and offering viable alternatives or improvements that make the study of another language even more relevant, more specifically student-centered, and more creative.

Robert M. Terry
Editor

1

LISTENING PROCESSES AND AUTHENTIC TEXTS

Donna Reseigh Long

INTRODUCTION

It is generally understood today that listening comprehension is the result of three interrelated, recursive processes: perception, parsing, and utilization[1] (O'Malley, Chamot, and Küpper, 7). Although several theorists (see for example: Byrnes, 1; Richards, 8; Rivers, 9) share this perspective, the current research base in this area is clearly insufficient. O'Malley et al. suggest that what is needed is more research that "clarifies what listeners actually do while engaged in listening tasks (419)". Accessing information about how learners listen is made more difficult by the covert nature of the listening processes themselves. While recall protocols (James, 3) have proven to be effective measures of foreign language (FL) listening *comprehension*, adequate methods of accessing subjects' listening *processes* are still being sought. Introspective methods, in which subjects' report on their own processes and intuitions, have long been used in the field of psychology, sociology, and linguistics. There is an emerging validation and acceptance of introspective research methods in foreign language and second language (L2) research (Faerch and Kaspar, 2). Considering the current emphasis in FL education on the use of authentic texts and the prevalence of video in the language classroom, there is a particular need for investigating learners' processing of authentic video texts via introspective methods.

THE STUDY

The purpose of the present study is to describe what FL learners think they are doing when listening to authentic texts. That is, what types of conscious listening strategies do they employ? In a previous study (Long, 5), learners indicated that they were more attentive to and motivated by authentic audio and video texts than by those that were primarily pedagogical in nature. Although some educators question the appropriateness of authentic listening texts for beginning students, Lund (6) has stressed that authentic listening *texts* may be used at any stage of FL instruction as long as listening *tasks* are adjusted accordingly. For these reasons, it was determined that only authentic listening texts would be exploited throughout the study.

The study investigated intermediate Spanish learners' comprehension of three authentic audio and three authentic video texts. The present article represents only a small portion of the total data from this study. It focuses on the introspective commentaries of six subjects on a single authentic video text.

SUBJECTS

The subjects were six students enrolled in two different sections of Spanish 104.01, fourth-quarter Spanish, at The Ohio State University. For most students, Spanish 104 represents the final course of the foreign language requirement and the last Spanish course that they will ever take. About sixty percent of the students enrolled in the course have completed two or more years of high school Spanish, the course is taught by full-time instructor or advanced graduate teaching associates. Demographic data for the six subjects is presented in Table 1.

TEXT

The authentic text used in this portion of the study is a selection from the América Video Library (Liskin-Gasparro and Hallberg, 4). These materials consist of special features designed for the Hispanic TV audience in the United States. The segment used in the present study concerns the origins of *tapas* (appetizers) in Spain and the growing popularity of *tapas* bars and restaurants in the United States. The text is approximately 6 minutes 20 seconds in length, and the word rate varies across speakers. In three of the pertinent sections, for example, we find word rates (see Richards, 8) of 234 words per minute (fast) for Sergio Urquidi, 156 words per minute (moderately slow) for Penelope Casas, and 168 words per minute (average) for Felipe Rojas.

TASK DEFINITION

In the pilot phase preceding this study, subjects listened to variouse types of authentic and pedagogical Spanish texts. Afterwards, they stated the main idea and as many details as they could remember, and commented on how they were able to extract meaning from the text. Although all of the subjects said that they used vocabulary recognition as their principal listening strategy, there were

Table 1 **Demographic Information by Subject**

	ERIKA	ANDREW	STACEY	MANDY	SCOTT	APRIL
HS SPANISH[a]	2	3	4	4	3	2
OSU SPANISH	4	2	3	3	4	3
LISTENING ABILITY	F	G	F	F	F	G
OUTSIDE PRACTICE	N	Y	N	N	N	N
TRAVEL	N	N	PUERTO RICO	SPAIN	N	MEXICO
EXPECTED GRADE	B+	B+	B	B	B	A

[a] Years of High School Spanish.

RESULTS

Table 2 summarizes the subjects' responses to the five detail questions. In general, Erika, Andrew, Stacey, Mandy, and April easily identified the segments of the video text containing the information pertinent to each question, although they were not always able to zero in on the specific answer. Scott, on the other hand, was unable to comprehend almost all of the text. According to Scott's demographic information (see Table 1), he took three years of high school Spanish and four quarters of Spanish at the university. This latter datum indicates that Scott scored very low on the placement test and had to begin with the lowest level Spanish course at Ohio State. In the remainder of this section, subjects' introspections about each of the detail questions will be presented, followed by an analysis of listening processes that may be inferred from their comments.

Question one, "What are *tapas?"*, elicited a variety of interesting responses. Erika, for example, stated: "First of all, I was thinking, 'I know I've heard the word *tapas* before. 'I was just trying to figue out what the heck they are. Then I heard them talking about calamari, and I love the stuff. Then I heard them talk about something else. Then they started showing the different dishes, and I thought, 'OK. It's not a certain kind of food. It's different kinds of hors d'oeuvres'. So I figured that." Andrew said: "I know it's food, but it's a whole different..., it's a whole bunch of food. I mean, I heard..., fried, raw... I heard sushi. Are they kind of like appetizers? Whoosh! OK. Now what was that word? OK, *tapas* are like appetizers, something like that." He related this answer to his own abundant indications that other types of strategies were also in operation. Based on the results of the pilot study, it was hypothesized that specific listening tasks might be linked with specific patterns of strategy use. In the present study, therefore, each authentic text was paired with a logical listening task, such as listening for the main idea, noting specific details, sequencing, noting irrelevancies, predicting outcomes, and evaluating. For the *tapas* text, sujects were asked to listen for the following details:

1. What are *tapas?*
2. How did they originate?
3. Where can you get *tapas* in the United States?
4. How do *tapas* bars in the United States differ from those in Spain?
5. Who has written a best-selling *tapas* cookbook?

PROCEDURES

Subjects came individually to the investigator's office to complete the listening tasks, which took a little less than one hour. A tape recorder was used as a record keeper and ran continually throughout the session. The videocassette recorder used to play the text was under the complete control of the sujects. They were encouraged to pause, rewind, and listen as many times as necessary in order to complete the task. Paper and pencil were provided for note-taking, if the subjects wished. In addition to noting the relevant details, subjects were advised to focus and comment on how they were processing the information, that is, how it was that they "got the meaning" or what prevented them from comprehending. A warmup and practice period with a different text was provided.

Table 2 **Subject Responses to Detail Questions**

Subject:	**ERIKA**	**ANDREW**	**STACEY**	**MANDY**	**SCOTT**	**APRIL**
Question:						
1. What are *tapas*?	+	+	-	+	+	+
2. How did they originate?	+/-	+	+/-	-	-	+/-
3. Where can you get *tapas* in the U.S.?	-	+	-	-	-	-

Table 2 **Subject Responses to Detail Questions**
(continued)

Subject:	ERIKA	ANDREW	STACEY	MANDY	SCOTT	APRIL
4. How do *tapas* bars in the U.S. differ from those in Spain?	+	+	+	+	+	+
5. Who has written a best selling *tapas* cookbook	+	-	-	-	-	-

personal experience, "I worked in a bar once, in El Coyote, and we always served appetizers and stuff." Stacey was only sightly off track in her answer. "Are they clams or some sort of seafood? Well, they just seemed to use *tapas* as a very general term, like it's food in general, but then I saw all sorts of seafood. What would you call it in English? It seemed to be kind of white, like a sandwich, kind of. Was it fried?" Mandy was right on target: "Oh, gosh. Um. I guess they're like little types of food. You know what I mean? Like appetizer things." Scott guessed: I don't know. Is it a meal? A snack? Um." April was very accurate in her response: "*Tapas* are like little snacks or appetizers. They eat just about anything on little tiny saucers". Andrew, who had no difficulty with any of the questions, seems to have developed his listening skills to the point where they have become automatic. Prior to beginning the listening task, he reported that he speaks Spanish frequently with friends and foreign students. Because of the automaticity of these processes, however, Andrew experienced some difficulty in verbalizing how he listens.

Analysis: Erika's comments indicate two types of processing. First, she heard a familiar word, calamari (actually, *calamares* in Spanish). Because of the word recognition, she was able to associate the display of hoers d'oeuvres in the video with the topic of *tapas*. Andrew used a multiple word recognition strategy to compile evidence for his correct answer by focusing on the Spanish words for *fried, raw, and sushi*. He also relied on background information in his responses. Recalling his personal experiences as a waiter in a bar, Andrew put into effect a schema for appetizers. The remaining subjects, Stacey, Mandy, and Scott, relied on the visual rather than verbal input in arriving at their answers. Stacey, for example, uses visual terms like "I saw" and "it seemed to be kind of white." April noted the "little saucers" and Mandy the "little types of food" Both of these terms relate to the small portions represented in the video. Because Scott seemed to have very little understanding of any of the verbal input, one must draw the conclusion that he guessed the answer from the visual input.

The origin of *tapas,* question two, was more difficult. Although Erika, Andrew, Stacey, Mandy, and April, all identified Spain as the place where *tapas* originated, only Andrew and April specified southern Spain. The tradition itself was captured only by Andrew and Mandy. Andrew stated: "I got it was like a century ago in the south of Spain and they were drinkin'... they wanted something like sausage or ham to eat with their drink ... and that's how it started." Mandy stated, "It originated in a bar, a Spanish bar. I don't know what she's doing. A plate over ham or something. I don't know. They put it over something."

Analysis: The verbal input for this segment had a very slow word rate and contained many food-related words commonly taught in first-year Spanish courses. As a result, word recognition as fairly accurate. In addition, the speaker gave a demonstration of the original custom of balancing a small saucer of tidbits or a slice of meat over the top of the sherry glass. Surprisingly, Mandy was the only subject who clearly associated this blatant visual cue with the auditory message in arriving at her answer.

"Where can you get *tapas* in the United States?", question three, was an easy detail for all subjects. Having the question in advance allowed them to listen for place names of U.S. cities. Some subjects were even able to name a few of the restaurants.

Analysis: Word recognition was again a major processing strategy, supported by an advance organizer in the form of the detail question. Even though they were given a Spanish pronunciation, the cities of Miami, Washington, and *Nueva* York were easily recognized. However, the fact that some of the subjects were able to name the restaurants indicates that the visual input was also significant. Although in some cases the name of the restaurant was mentioned by the speaker, generally it appeared as a subtitle or on the awning or entry to the restaurant itself.

Question four, "How do *tapas* bars in the United States differ from those in Spain?", was somewhat problematic for the subjects. One reason may be the lack of visual cues. Erika determined that the custom of taking *tapas* was more formal in one of the countries than the other, but she became confused. "I couldn't tell, they kept going back and forth. OK, so they're less informal in Spain? Oh. They're more informal in Spain, more formal in the United States. That's where I was getting confused. I thought the restaurants were in Spain, and, like the first part. Stacey also reversed the customs: "Were the bars in Spain the ones where you sat there and they like did it in front of you? No, it wasn't that." Mandy was also confused: "Um. I don't know, but it's the difference between the United States and Spain. It's something about that they're hot, that they're more natural in the United States or something like that." April also applied the same misinformation: "Usually people go to bars to eat and talk and see their friends. It's kind of a social thing to do. Um, what they said, they like their things in the United States not quite as hot, as spicy, as in Spain."

Analysis: Here, Erika and Stacey seem to be using a pairing strategy in their processing. That is, the recognized a formal/informal element relating to Spain and the United States. Beginning language learners often rely on the same strategy in learning antonyms, such as short/tall. Frequently, however, they are unable to separate or assign the correct meaning to the individual members of the pair. In other words, they know that the pair has the meaning short/tall, but they cannot specify which term is which. April and Mandy's responses were interesting in their display of a dysfunctional application of background information about Mexican foods to Spanish *tapas*.

Question five, "Who has written a best-selling *tapas* cookbook?", proved difficult for everyone but Andrew. This finding is very surprising, in that the text provides multiple clues to the answer. Not only does the author speak in the video, but her name appears in print during the scene, and the cookbook itself is displayed with the author's name clearly visible. Erika explained the oversight as follows: "And I don't know who wrote the book. I completely forgot about the question. Personally, I was just trying to figure out what *tapas* were, exactly." After being encouraged to rewind and seek the answer, Erika located the pertinent segment quickly, but still missed the name: "That's it. Did they mention who wrote the book, though?" Stacey was unable to locate the key segment for herself, but she identified "that woman" as the author of the cookbook after the investigator rewound and played the scene again. Mandy could neither identify the segment nor the author, even with the investigator's help. Scott was lost throughout most of the text. When asked about the cause of his lack of comprehension, he hypothesized: "I don't know. It might have been the length. I didn't see anything." April reported simply, "Um. I think, basically, I missed the last question."

Analysis: Because this segment occurred close to the beginning of the text, the subjects were still in a "warmup" phase of processing that may have made it difficult for them to concentrate on the visual and verbal input simultaneously. Erika's comments illustrate this interesting phenomenon:

> Like, when they talked about writing the book, I wasn't even paying attention to her name on the screen. OK, I was trying to listen and I wasn't looking. It's like I can either look or listen. No, it's (the subtitle) no use at all. Like, I know when I've watched Spanish movies with subtitles, like "*La Historia Oficial*" of Argentina, I watched that, I rmember, in high school and I missed it, so she the teacher let me take it home. And I watched it, and like the first part, watching it, I was kind of looking at the pictures, but I was watching the sub-titles. and I couldn't remember who was who, because I was reading the subtitles and not paying attention, and they go so fast. So then, I had to go back and I tried to like watch the movie. And then in Spanish 103, we watched it again, so I'd already seen it twice. so this time, it was easier for me to associate the picture with the subtitle. Again, the first time I read it. The second time I watched it. And the third time, I saw it. A lot of things I missed the first two times I was able to get. So I really *understood* and I was able to get it both at the same time. So I didn't even notice I was listening."

GENERAL COMMENTS ON PROCESSING

This small portion of the larger study provides some interesting insights into how FL learners listen to and process an authentic video text. Subjects in the present study utilized a variety of strategies in attempting to comprehend the text and answer the detail questions:

1. **Paying attention.** These subjects recognized the benfits of "going with the flow." As April concluded, "Don't stop listening if you get stuck."
2. **Previewing.** All six subjects elected to play the video through completely before going back and relistening to the passages that they identified as key segments (those containing answers to the detail question). This may be viewed as an organizing or orienting strategy.
3. **Recognizing key words.** As in the pilot study word recognition was cited frequently as a listening strategy. Indeed, this was the primary strategy that was verbalized.
4. **Utilizing background knowledge.** Andrew's comments highlight the application of background knowledge to listening comprehension. The knowledge gained from his experiences working in a bar, enabled Andrew to comprehend the concept of *tapas* and *tapas* bars very easily. However, with respect to April and Mandy's mistaken comparison of *tapas* to spicy Mexican food, it is obvious that background knowledge can also prove dysfunctional.

5. **Taking advantage of lengthy text.** Although Scott thought that the length of the text prevented him from understanding, April used that length to her advantage: "Sometimes they were saying something I didn't... they were just kind of going on about something. So I'd try to think about what I'd already heard."
6. **Utilizing pauses.** Some of the subjects mentioned that they utilized pauses in the text to think about what they had already heard.
7. **Focusing on redundancy.** By focusing on redundancies and enumerations, subjects were able to build up details leading to the correct answer.
8. **Taking notes.** The subjects took very few notes, but rather tried to concentrate on watching and listening. As April reflected, "I usually just wanted to listen, because if I take time and try to write it, and really try to think about it, I just miss what he's saying."

CLASSROOM IMPLICATIONS

It is clear from even this very small sample, that FL learners *are* conscious of how they process aural input from authentic video texts. They are able to verbalize at least some of these processes with minimal instruction, prompting, and probing from an investigator. Task specification does not preclude nor prevent subjects from a more global understanding of the text. The use of a tape recorder as a record-keeping instrument is a very effective research tool. Allowing subjects complete control over manipulation of the text revealed that they use a multi-layered processing strategy, watching first for visual cues, then listening for audio cues. Some learners find the audiovisual mode to be helpful in comprehending authentic texts, while other learners are distracted by the visual input and feel that they are, as a result, less attentive.

Foreign language educators are extremely interested in the use of authentic videos as instructional materials, not only as listening texts, but also in the study of structure, vocabulary in context, and as a means of conveying cultural information. Very little data is currently available on the effects of such materials on the acquisition of a foreign language.

It is interesting to note that in the present study most of the subjects pondered the nature of video and its advantages and disadvantages to comprehension, without any prompting from the investigator. Embedded in Erika's comments are two crucial concerns. First, some students must separate the visual domain from the verbald in order to comprehend a video text. Secondly, after using this type of processing strategy, Erika was able to really "listen" and to assimilate both domains at once. Stacey, also, found the combination of sight and sound to be distracting: "I think the thing that made this [video] harder is that it had a lot of pictures. I didn't pay as much attention, because I was watching". In contrast, April found the video to be very helpful. She stated: "When you have a video it always helps, because there may be words you've forgotten, but you know what they mean, and you see the picture and it clicks with what they're saying. Yeah, the pictures always help. I try to relax and make associations".

Unfortunately, the research base in the fields tends to lag behind classroom practice, and practitioners must take their best guess as to whether a specific strategy, method, or material should become part of the instructional program. In the case of authentic videos, the attention, motivation, and comprehension associated with these materials, indicate that there is a little harm and, indeed, many benefits in their classroom usage. Educators should not be afraid to use authentic video materials, even at the earliest stages of instruction, providing they follow common-sense guidelines, such as these:

1. Simplify the listening task, rather than the listening text.
2. Teach students to use a variety of listening strategies.
3. Use introspection as a learning/teaching tool. Encourage students to be attentive to their learning processes and to share them with others.

END NOTES

1. During perception, attention is focused on the oral text. Sounds, and probably key words and phrases, are retained in echoic memory. Parsing refers to the segmentation or chunking of input into meaningful mental representations for storage in short term memory. utilization is the process of relating these representations to existing knowledge stored in long term memory. These three processes are not separate and sequential, but rather overlap each other. Recycling and modification take place as a result of prior and subsequent processes.

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2

DIRECTORY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMS IN THE UNITED STATES: A PRELIMINARY REPORT

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This paper presents both a rationale for and some details regarding the preparation of a comprehensive directory to foreign language teacher preparation (FLTP) programs in the United States *(Directory, 1987)*. Because the volume is still being compiled, this paper presents preliminary survey results and discusses the potential of the *Directory* for helping to solve the foreign language teacher shortage in the United States.

The preparation of this *Directory* came in direct response to the discovery that no single source provides information about the location, curricular content of FLTP programs, teacher certification requirements, or reciprocity agreements between states. In view of the national teacher shortage in foreign languages (see Draper, 1989), the need for a directory is quite acute. Currently, potential students can identify teacher preparation programs in foreign languages by contacting the state department of education in each state where they are considering applying for a position. The planned directory will facilitate their search. Local education agencies (LEAs) and state education agencies (SEAs) who need to recruit teachers could benefit from a directory that lists all state-approved teacher preparation programs in foreign languages. For the sake of communication, foreign language educators need to know where their colleagues are. The directory will identify programs similar to theirs and colleagues whom they can contact for an exchange of information. Researchers who want to collect data about FLTP programs will finally have a ready source of information.

During the past decade, TESOL has issued three editions of its *Directory of Professional Preparation Programs in TESOL in the United States*; the latest issue covers the years 1989-91. Helen Kornblum supervised the preparation of this volume which describes 245 undergraduate and graduate programs in TESOL at 158 institutions. Other directories of second language education programs in other countries have been published: Mollica and Yalden of Canada prepared *English and French as Second Languages in Canadian Teacher-Education Institutions;* Great Britain has a directory entitled *English as a Foreign Language: International EFL Careers and Qualification*; and Australia and New Zealand have issued *A Directory of Specialist TESOL Teacher Training and Applied Linguistics Programs in Australia and New Zealand*.

Why then are FLTP programs not treated in a directory by the Modern Language Association (MLA, 1990), the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) or the American Association of Teachers of Spanish, French or German (AATSP, AATF, AATG)? The National Education Association and the

American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education also do not have a list of foreign language teacher preparation programs. The Modern Language Association has published a *Directory of Master's Programs in Foreign Languages, Foreign Literatures, and Linguistics (1987)* which does include some master's degree programs in Foreign Language Education. In addition the MLA annually issues an excellent directory of foreign language departmental administrators (and departments) of two and four year colleges in the September issue of PMLA. Schulz's otherwise comprehensive examination of the national curriculum in foreign languages at the undergraduate level, *Options for Undergraduate Foreign Language Programs (Schulz, 1979)*, does not include foreign languages education courses or programs. In fact, one of the few sources of data on foreign language education programs was Di Pietro, Lantolf, and Labarca's article on "The Graduate Foreign Language Curriculum" in a 1983 issue of *The Modern Language Journal (MLJ)*. In a survey, they found twenty-five courses in pedagogy out of 881 courses offered by university language departments in their sample of 326 institutions. These same institutions offered nineteen MEds and sixty-five MATs in French, Spanish, German and lesser taught languages, a small percentage of the total graduate degrees granted. With respect to doctoral programs, Benseler's annual survey of doctoral degrees granted in foreign languages, published in the MLJ indicates which institutions have granted degrees in "foreign/second language acquisition: teaching", as well as student name, dissertation title and advisor's name. In his 1989 survey, he identifies nineteen universities with such programs. Another source of information is Leslie Schrier's dissertation from Ohio State, "A Survey of Foreign

Language Teacher Preparation Patterns and Procedures in Small, Private Colleges and Universities in the United States."

Both ACTFL and TESOL have established guidelines for teacher preparation programs. The 1966 Golden Anniversary Issue of the MLJ included "Guidelines for Teacher Education Programs in Modern Foreign Languages." They provide an interesting point of reference for our work today. Bernhardt and Hammadou's article, "A Decade of Research in Foreign Language Education," (1987) reviews research in foreign language education and assesses the research base. They find that the database for FLTP research is extremely limited and reliant on "discussions among experienced foreign language educators about the educational needs of foreign language teachers as the experts have perceived them, rather than on the principled collection of data and information" (1987, 293). Rare reference was made to parallel discoveries in the broader field of teacher education in general. In analyzing the contents of the literature, they uncovered a number of questions for future study.

Over a decade ago, Benseler recognized that "not one of our present professional associations can or does represent or speak for all or us." He argued on behalf of a single professional organization, which he chose to call the American Language Association. He envisioned that it would unify and replace under a single, easily recognizable name the profession's local, regional and state foreign language organizations. Although the majority of professional foreign language educators teach at levels ranging from pre-K through adult, paradoxically foreign language education is the neglected part of the field. To fail to recognize pedagogical training as an important part of foreign language preparation for K-12 or university faculty is a dangerous omission that undermines the essence and effectiveness of the profession. Unfortunately, the traditional lack of teacher education for college faculty reflects and reinforces the belief that anyone can teach (with or without special preparation) in the discipline.

Unlike TESOL, why does the foreign language profession not keep track of its teacher preparation programs? Several factors may explain the lack of information on the FLTP programs. First, as Benseler (1980) notes in his essay on the upper-division curriculum, some view foreign language education as ancillary to the study of foreign languages or as pertaining specifically to colleges of education. In truth, FLTP programs are often split between the foreign language departments in colleges of arts and sciences and secondary education departments in colleges of education. This schizophrenic, or interdisciplinary nature of the field complicates the issues of identity and ownership. However, this split identity affects TESOL to an even greater degree, with its programs scattered among English, linguistics, and modern language departments as well as in various departments of colleges of education.

THE DIRECTORY

Contents. The *Directory* will consist of a list of state-approved undergraduate and graduate teacher education programs for each state and Washington, DC; an overview of state certification requirements and reciprocity agreements; and program descriptions of all institutions which respond to our request for information. The program information will consist of degrees offered, length of program admissions requirements, program requirements, program of studies, orientation of program, full time faculty, tuition, fees and financial aid, number of program graduates and special activities.

Preparation. After identifying the need for the project, we found financial support at Florida International University. The Center for Multilingual-Multicultural Studies at Florida International University under the directorship of Tanya Saunders Hamilton provided a modest research grant for the project.

Project implementation consists of the following three steps:

1) identify those colleges and universities that have state-approved foreign language teacher education programs at the undergraduate and graduate levels and the contact persons at those institutions;

2) obtain information on state certification requirements and reciprocity agreements; and

3) collect and compile information on the nature and curriculum of individual programs.

To carry out the first two steps, we contacted all state foreign language supervisors by mail for a list of state-approved programs, contact persons, certification requirements and reciprocity agreements. Our first mailing was sent out on 5 February 1990, with follow-up letters to non-respondents on 20 April 1990. In September, the five remaining non-respondents were contacted by telephone.

The information we sought was often held by two separate sources in the state departments of education: a state certification officer and the foreign language supervisor. In some cases, the foreign language supervisor referred our request for information to the state certification officer. On other occasions we received some information from each source.

For certification information, we received complete information from half of the states. From thirty-eight states we received information on the foreign language requirements, while only twenty-eight states furnished information on professional education requirements. In retrospect, the wording of our request for information on certification could be interpreted as a call for just the foreign language certification requirements, and not the generic requirements established for teachers in all areas.

From the information that the supervisors or certification officials furnished, we compiled a mailing list of contact persons, deans of colleges of eduction, and chairs of foreign language departments at smaller colleges that we suspected did not have colleges of education. Our list contains 773 institutions with state-approved FLTP programs. Although we were unable to obtain a list of approved programs from Connecticut, Idaho, and Texas, we included the major public and private institutions in those states although we have not yet verified whether they have state approved programs. We also include the eighty-one Pennsylvania institutions with foreign language departments that were not specifically identified as having state-approved teacher education programs. We mailed the survey instrument to colleges and universities first on 31 January 1991 and again on 18 March 1991 to non-respondents. A total of 295 institutions responded to the survey for a response rate of thirty-seven percent. The results will appear in the *Directory* which will be published by the Joint National Committee for Languages/National Council on Languages and International Studies, Washington D.C.

PRELIMINARY FINDINGS

State-Approved Institutions. We have identified 773 institutions with teacher education programs in foreign languages, including the non-verified programs from Connecticut, Idaho, Nebraska, Pennsylvania, and Texas. The number of institutions per state is indicated following the references at the end of the paper. New York has the most training institutions (82) followed by Pennsylvania (81). Other states with large numbers of foreign language education programs are: California (40), Illinois (37), Ohio (36), Michigan (32), Indiana (31), Virginia (28), North Carolina (27), Missouri (23) and Iowa (22). We plan to estimate the number of foreign language teachers who are prepared annually by these programs when we compile the data from the individual programs.

Certification. Certification rules and regulations will be summarized in the directory. This is no easy task given the complexity and diversity of the requirements, and the different levels of certification available (temporary, part-time, provisional, add-on, full, professional, substitute, lifetime, to name just a few!). In addition, distinctions are made among procedures for initial certification, adding another area to existing certification, and renewal of certificates. The language of certification further complicates matters with the wide variation in meaning of "licensure," "endorsement," and "certification". The complexity of the certification requirements and the bureaucracy of the certification process must discourage prospective teachers and contribute to the teacher shortage. In some states like Florida, the certification process can be a drawn-out, confusing, and frustrating experience. The certification regulations of too many states are unclear and difficult to understand.

Certain trends in foreign language certification are discernible. Most states require thirty semester hours of instruction or a major in the target language. Eleven states offer foreign language certification for the secondary level, while nine have K-12 certification available. In twelve states, the teacher can be certified in foreign languages at either the elementary or secondary level.

One of the most interesting areas in foreign language certification relates to testing knowledge and skills in the subject matter. A number of states have opted for oral proficiency testing for their teachers. Taking a leadership role, the Texas Education Agency contracted with the Center for Applied Linguistics to develop the Texas Oral Proficiency Test (TOPT), a semi-direct oral proficiency interview for Spanish and French teachers. Starting in the fall of 1991, Texas will administer the test to people who seek initial certification in Spanish and French, as well as in bilingual education. Washington, DC, requires foreign language teachers who seek initial certification to score a 2+ on an oral proficiency interview modeled after the ACTFL OPI. A testing panel offers the test to prospective teachers twice a year. In Massachusetts, new teachers must take a language proficiency test in reading, writing and speaking that is administered by the University of Massachusetts in Boston. A score of Intermediate High on the ACTFL OPI is an option for French teachers seeking certification in Louisiana. Utah requires a score of Advanced on the ACTFL OPI for teachers of German, French, and Spanish who have a valid certification in another area. New Hampshire strongly recommends proof of language competence through a score on the OPI, GRE, NTE, or other examination. Two states have made a recommendation for new foreign language teachers to be required to take the ACTFL OPI in the future: Vermont will require a score of Intermediate High for the ACTFL OPI (and in reading and writing) after 30 June 1995, while North Carolina recommends that new teachers score 2+ on the FSI or Advanced Plus on the ACTFL OPI by 1993. Ten states indicated that they require a certain score (and these vary considerably from state to state) on the NTE in Spanish, French or German. The majority of states do not yet require oral tests of proficiency for new teachers. However, new interest may arise in oral proficiency testing of teachers and students following the Consent Decree signed by the state of Florida that requires that teachers of limited English proficient students be competent in the language of instruction, and that tests be approved for placement and measurement of language proficiency of language minority students. Florida is now examining oral tests for both students and teachers in order to decide which will be approved for use by the school districts. On the other hand, given the teacher shortage, other states may hesitate before introducing new certification requirements that will further limit the pool of job applicants in spite of the importance of establishing standards in oral proficiency for foreign language teachers.

Some states (Georgia, Kansas, New Hampshire, North Carolina, Vermont, Virginia, Wisconsin) have developed guidelines and competencies for foreign language teacher education. Although we did not specifically request this information, the states mentioned above kindly supplied it. These, coupled with the ACTFL and TESOL guidelines for teacher preparation programs, help to define the knowledge base for the field by describing the types of knowledge, attitudes, and skills that state educators consider important for foreign language teachers.

The treatment of native speakers by state certification offices is a matter in need of review in order to tap an important source of potential foreign language teachers. Only one state, Georgia, according to the responses we received, had carefully articulated certification regulations that took native language proficiency into consideration. Other states, like Florida and Oklahoma require the same amount of course work in the target language for native speakers as for non-native speakers. This unnecessarily delays the certification process of individuals who could help alleviate the teacher shortage.

Louisiana has a unique and very interesting requirement for its French teachers (optional for teachers of other languages): study two semesters abroad or spend two summers of intensive immersion study at a Louisiana university campus, out of state, or abroad, or secondary teachers must score intermediate high on the ACTFL OPI.

A foreign language methods course was required for certification in twelve states that provided information about this requirement. Florida and Minnesota require a methods course in teaching foreign languages at both the elementary and secondary levels. Student teaching is required in state-approved programs in twenty-eight states and Washington, DC.

Reciprocity. To alleviate the teacher shortage, many states recognize teaching certificates or teacher preparation programs from other states as equivalent to their own. Some states such as Arizona, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Michigan, Mississippi, North Dakota, and West Virginia recognize all programs with equivalent or high standards and certain other conditions such as a passing score on the NTE. Two reciprocity agreements are widespread to assist states in their recognition of out-of-state credentials for a teaching certificate. These are NASDTEC (the National Association of State Directors of Teaching Education and Certification) which has approximately twenty-seven participants including Washington, DC, and the Interstate Certification Project which covers twenty-eight states, Washington, DC, and the Overseas Dependents Schools. Under either agreement, states may be added or deleted from the list over time. Some states participate in both agreements, as well as recognize the credentials of potential teachers from any state-approved institution with equivalent or higher requirements. In spite of this willingness to grant certification to qualified people with out-of-state credentials, the certification process is far from easy for reasons described above.

Alternative certification programs have been developed in states such as New Jersey and Georgia with considerable success. The New Jersey Provisional Teacher Program, which is clearly and precisely articulated by the New Jersey Department of Education, has been in operation since 1985. College graduates who join this program are assigned a subject specialist mentor for the first year with whom they undergo intensive (all-day) supervision and collaboration for the first twenty teaching days, weekly supervision and collaboration for the next ten weeks, and monthly supervisions and collaboration for the next five months.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE TEACHER SHORTAGE

In its presentation of information on certification, reciprocity agreements, and FLTP programs, we believe that the *Directory* can help alleviate the teacher shortage. Its compilation of state-approved programs will permit the identification of places where new teachers can be trained and SEAs and LEAs can recruit new teachers. We also hope that this project contributes to the knowledge base about foreign language education, improves communication within the field, and helps to link foreign language education more solidly with foreign language departments and the teaching of foreign languages at all levels.

In terms of certification, we hope that the *Directory* calls attention to the need to streamline and simplify both the regulations and the process of certification so that potential teachers are not discouraged and lost to the field before they start. Certification regulations must be written clearly so that they are comprehensible to any educated individual, not just trained certification officers or lawyers.

States should consider following Georgia's lead in taking the special qualifications of native speakers into account when granting certification. These individuals should not have to take the same number of course hours as non-native speakers if they can prove their literacy and oral proficiency through testing.

With respect to new requirements in providing or certifying oral proficiency for teachers seeking initial certification, foreign language departments must seriously consider the institution of realistic proficiency requirements for their graduates. New oral tests such as the promising semi-direct oral proficiency tests developed by the Center for Applied Linguistics for the State of Texas should be created and adopted for a wider, national use.

We have found in our work on the *Directory* that foreign language departments, colleges of education, state departments of education, and professional organizations have already identified a number of powerful ways to address the teacher shortage. It is a matter of communicating the effectiveness of the models, airing the problems, and continuing the work.

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APPENDIX A

Number of Institutions (by State) with Teacher Preparation Programs

	1	IL	37	MT	05	SC	14
AL	14	IN	31	NC	27	SD	04
AR	13	KS	18	ND	05	TN	10
AZ	03	KY	16	NE	03	TX	16
CA	40	LA	19	NH	08	UT	06
CO	13	MA	16	NM	04	VA	28
CT	07	MD	03	NY	82	VT	07
DE	01	ME	08	OH	36	WA	14
FL	18	MI	32	OK	09	WV	08
HI	01	MN	19	OR	10	WY	01
IA	22	MO	23	PA	81		
ID	03	MS	15	RI	03		

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3

CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES: INCREASE THE CHALLENGE

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Subject. . . verb. . . story. . . plot. . . culture. . . questions. . . answers. . . These topics are a common concern for foreign language teachers. How they are introduced, reviewed, emphasized, and clarified in each language classroom varies according to the method deemed most effective by the teacher. Whether a teacher chooses a traditional, non-traditional, or an eclectic approach to teaching, the primary objective remains the same--to help the students learn the foreign language.

Regardless of the method initially used to teach a topic, our ultimate goal is student performance that shows comprehension and assimilation of the material taught. Classroom activities that encourage student performance in the initial learning stages, require sustained student participation, and maintain a high level of interest throughout the activity are among the most effective in reaching this goal. Among the activities that contain all of these elements are childhood games. These games encourage the player to perform, require sustained participation, and have always elicited a high level of interest from the player. Some of the more popular games and activities can be easily adapted to foreign language teaching. With such adaptations, the focus is placed on the game/activity with the foreign language becoming the means by which the game is won. The language becomes secondary to the purpose of the game but of primary importance to complete the game. This serves a dual purpose. First, the students are motivated because they are playing a game (which is what they like to do). Second, the teacher is delighted because the students are speaking in the foreign language (which is what s/he wants them to do)! The students become involved from the beginning: Their sustained participation is required for them to play the game, and because of the competition between the teams, a high level of interest is maintained.

The games/activities explained below are among the most successfully used in the classroom and incorporate all of the elements mentioned above. In addition, each game/activity encourages individual contributions and group/team decision-making throughout the entire course of play. After the format of each game/activity is explained, an example of its use in the classroom is described.

All of the games/activities presented use very basic materials that are readily available. These materials include:

1. file folders
2. file cards (4 in. x 6 in.) in many colors
3. felt tip markers in many colors
4. glue stick
5. construction paper
6. dice (regular 6-sided dice)
7. optional: clear contact paper or laminating machine.

CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

These activities are designed for use by small groups (2-4 participants) or large groups (the entire class divided into two teams). The activities are discussed and explained in their entirety including materials needed and preparation prior to classroom use.

ACTIVITY ONE: SNAKES AND LADDERS

Materials Needed:

1. One game board modeled after the board of the children's traditional game *Snakes and Ladders* (change the title to *Serpents et Échelles for* French classes, *Culebras y Escaleras* for Spanish classes, etc.). This board should have 100 squares numbered 1 to 100.
2. Game pieces for each player. The piece can be a cardboard circle, bolt, or playing pieces from other games.
3. One die.
4. One packet of 100 questions numbered from 1 to 100.
5. One answer key.

Preparation:

1. Copy enough game boards for the number of groups that will be playing.
2. (Optional) Color the snakes and the title on each board.
3. Compile 100 questions on the topic of choice, and number from 1 to 100.
4. Prepare answer key to set of 100 questions.
5. Make one copy of questions and answers for each game board distributed.

Object of game:

To be the first player to reach the last square by exact count.

How to play:

Play is similar to the children's game in which you roll the die and move that number of spaces shown on the die along the numbered path. If you land on a ladder bottom, you immediately go to its top. If you land on the snake's mouth, you immediately go to the end of its tail and continue play from there. In addition to these basic rules. One player is designated the "Key" person. The player holds the questions and answer key to the game.

Each player rolls the die to get on the board. On the next turn, the player must answer correctly from the packet the question that corresponds numerically to the numbered square the playing piece is on. Once the question is answered correctly, the die is rolled and the piece moved that number of spaces to the next square. The play then continues to the next player. If the question is answered incorrectly, the player must wait for his/her next turn to roll the die and attempt a correct answer.

As a player approaches the number 100 (the last square), s/he must reach it by exact count. If the die roll is larger than needed, the count must be completed by going backwards (e.g., 99, 98, 97,..). The player is still subject to the snakes across the top row.

Following these variations from the original game creates an excitement in the classroom: never knowing who will be swallowed by a snake or fortunate enough to rise to the top of a ladder. There is also a high interest in the questions being asked since the questions numbered 1-100 correspond to the game board squares numbered 1-100. These questions do not vary. The question to square number 14 remains the same no matter how many playing pieces fall on that square. It behooves each player, therefore, to listen attentively to every question that is asked in the event that his/her playing piece should land on that square during the course of play.

Application: Snakes and Ladders

This activity synthesized a varying amount of research material, enhances each individual's contribution to the acquisition and learning of the material, and is a great incentive for remembering a wealth of information otherwise soon forgotten. This activity works well in all settings. Choose a topic that can be divided into 4 or 5 sections, depending on the number of students assigned to the group. Each member chooses a different section to research or develop and returns to class with completed assignment on the date due. From each group students that worked on the same section convene in a separate area of the classroom and compare notes with each other. Then, as a group, they make up 20 questions (if the topic was divided into five sections) or 25 (if there were originally four sections). Correct answers are to be included with all work. When all work is completed, there should be a total of 100 questions. The teacher then takes these questions and randomly orders them from 1 to 100, including the answer key for all questions. Enough copies need to be made for the number of groups participating in this activity.

One topic area easily adapted to this pattern is the research of a country (France, Spain, etc.). This topic can be divided into five sections: geography, history, music, art, and literature; or into four sections: geography, history, music and art, and literature. Each group member chooses a different section to research and returns to class with research notes. All those who researched Geography convene in one corner of the room, all those who did their research on History convene in another corner of the room, etc. Each newly-organized group now compares research notes, and, working from similarities in their notes, develops 20 to 25 questions (or true/false statements) based on the combined research efforts of everyone. All Geography questions should have a G in front of them; all History questions, and H, etc. The teacher collects each group's questions and statements and puts them in numberical order from 1-100 so that a Geography question is followed by a History question, followed by a Music question, then by an Art question, then a Literature question. In this way, each group's work is spread throughout the entire 100 questions. By prefacing each with the code letter (G= Geography, etc.), the player is aware of the section from which the question is chosen.

While the teacher is organizing the student's group work into a packet of 100 questions, the original groups (that is, the groups in which each person selected a different topic to research) reconvene. Within each group, each member now has the 20 to 25 questions that relate to the section researched. Each group member is then directed to teach his questions and correct answers to another group member. All other group members should become somewhat familiar with these section questions as well. Ample time should be provided for learning this material.

On the day of play, the groups are divided into two teams, each with two members. These two members will be paired off with team members from another group. Each member of a team should be well-versed in at least two different areas the class has researched. Technically a group of four would then have complete knowledge of the 100 questions in the packet used for play. The teams are then handed the game board, directions, and the question packet with answer key. If the answer key is attached as a separate sheet, players can take turns reading the question and checking the answers of an opponent. Otherwise a fifth person will be needed as the reader. Each player has a playing piece, however, as a team of two, each can help the other answer the question. Together the team members ideally know 100% of the questions since each researched and designed 25% of the questions and learned another 25% from a group member.

ACTIVITY TWO: CHECKERS

The following activity is designed for large group use (entire class). Adaptations for small group use are simple.

Materials needed:

1. One game board (bulletin Board size).
2. One map each (outlines) of two different countries.

Preparation:

1. Make a game board that is eight squares wide.
2. Each square should be about 4 in. x 4 in.
3. Beginning with the top left hand corner, every other square should be darkened.
4. Obtain and enlarge (or reduce) outline maps of two countries, e.g., France and Canada, Spain and Mexico, etc. These maps should be about 4 inches square.
5. Make 12 copies of each map.
6. Cut out each map along its boundaries.
7. Glue each map to a file card or construction paper background (4 in. x 4 in.). Each country should have its own color. (It is easier to identify the team's playing pieces on the board. The color is also used later in the game to identify the "kinged" pieces.)
8. Optional: Cover each map with clear contact paper or laminate each piece.

Object of game: To win by removing all of the opponent's pieces (maps) from the board.

How to play: Entitled French vs. Canadians (for French classes) or Spaniards vs. Mexicans (for Spanish classes), this game is played exactly like checkers.

Application: Checkers

This activity can be used for reviewing information and research concerning any two countries. Have student groups develop a series of questions or comments concerning the two countries. Once completed, the class is divided into two main groups, each representing a different country on the board. Each group selects a spokesperson whose responsibilities include ensuring that each team member has an opportunity to respond to the opposing team's question and, in turn, to ask the opposing team a question during the course of play.

When a team (e.g., French) is asked to answer a question or respond to a comment, the team's (Canadians) may collaborate and discuss whether the response is appropriate and acceptable. The (Canadian) team spokesperson informs the other team of its decision. If the response is acceptable, the (French) team is allowed to move a piece (map) on the board. If it is unacceptable, the team does not move a playing piece. Play alternates between the teams whether a correct and acceptable response is given or not. This keeps the game moving and the interest high as both teams try to respond properly in the attempt to conquer the opponent's pieces on the board.

As in the game of checkers, when a piece reaches the other side of the board, it is "kinged". This is accomplished by turning the map on its blank side. Since a different color background is used for each country, the team whose pieces are now kings is easily identified.

This activity used with a conversational/response format creates a strong involvement on each student's part in comprehending the question asked and the message received, in making group decisions in regard to the appropriateness of each response, and in participating in each aspect of the activity for individual accountability.

ACTIVITY THREE: TIC-TAC-TOE, FIVE-IN-A-ROW

This fast-paced activity is designed to review and reinforce vocabulary and/or grammatical structures that are otherwise very tedious and boring from a student's (as well as a teacher's) point of view. It is described for large-group use but can be easily adapted to small-group use.

Materials needed:

1. One game board (bulletin-board size)
2. Fourteen copies of each playing piece.

Preparation:

1. Make a game board that is five squares long by five squares wide.
2. Each square should be about 6 in. x 6 in.
3. Choose two different designs that reflect the culture of the language you are teaching to use as playing pieces, e.g., loaf of bread and cheese (*pain et fromage)* for French culture,

answer. Upon giving a correct response to a challenge word, the team member places one of his team's markers (*pain* or *sombrero*) on the board. The placement should be a team decision. When the other team responds correctly, it too places its marker (*fromage* or *guitarra*) on the board in an effort to place five-in-a-row and/or block the other team from placing five-in-a-row.

Since it is very difficult if not impossible) to get five-in-a-row, excitement and hope encourage the team to win. There is much team spirit created, and there are many enjoyable moments learning (for some) and reviewing (for others) material that is otherwise dull and monotonous.

ACTIVITY FOUR: FAIRY TALES

This activity creates a high level of enthusiasm in the classroom. The activity reinforces basic vocabulary and enhances learning through contextual meaning and repetitive use of the language.

Materials needed:

1. A fairy tale depicted in many pictures taken from a children's coloring book of fairy tales. This book should have a few simple sentences printed on each page.
2. A translation in the target language of the tale taken from the pages of the coloring book version.
3. Story of the fairy tale cut into many sentences or sections.
4. Envelopes in which to place the sentences.

sombrero and guitar (*sombrero y guitarra)* for Spanish culture, etc.

4. Cut out each shape and affix each piece to a colored background. Use a different colored background for each design, e.g. *pain* design on a yellow background, *fromage* design on a brown background, etc.
5. Optional: Cover each playing piece with clear contact paper or laminate each piece.

Object of the game: To be the first team to place five playing pieces in a row. These may be vertical, horizontal, or diagonal.

How to play: This gamae is similar to tic-tac-toe. Each team chooses its playing pieces (described above). Instead of placing three pieces in a row as in tic-tac-toe, the teams must place five in a row.

Application: Tic-Tac-Toe, Five-in-a-Row

Entitled *Pain et Fromage* for the French classes and *Sombrero y Guitarra* for the Spanish classes, the students in beginning levels make up a list of vocabulary words previously learned; students in advanced levels could do the same or review verb tenses and conjugations needing review. The teams will use this list to question the opposing team.

Each team chooses a captain, who is responsible for ensuring that each team member has an opportunity to respond to the opposing team's challenge word (maybe a verb) and who in turn asks a member to read from the team's list a challenge word for the opposing team to

Preparation:

1. Translate the story by using simple vocabulary for each page of the story. It may be necessary to add some words.
2. Copy each picture and omit the English sentences on the page.
3. Cut each story into sections (or by sentences for Advanced classes) so that each picture has a story strip (or strips) associated with it.
4. Place each set of story strips into its own envelope. You will need as many copies of the story (cut and placed in envelopes) as you have groups in the class.
5. Develop an appropriate short quiz based on the story.

Application: Fairy Tales

This activity can be used with any fairy tale. Some tales lend themselves to certain linguistic structures more than others (e.g., *The Three Little Pigs* for ordinal numbers, *Goldilocks and the Three Bears* for comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives). Whatever tale is chosen, the class is guaranteed to be excited with the exercise. The teacher can be certain that a great deal of language is being spoken and learned.

The story pictures should be hanging in correct order on the wall. Each group of 3 - 4 students is handed an envelope and directed to deal the strips of paper to each member of the group. Each member individually and silently reads his/her strips and attempts to put then in order according to his/her understanding of the strips and the pictures hanging on the board. When all have completed this part of the assignment, each person reads to the group the strip he has identified as the first in the series of strips on his desk. The group then decides which strip is the first (according to the pictures hanging on the wall), which is second, etc. Discussion should proceed in the foreign language.

There should be plenty of repetition of sentences and vocabulary as the students discuss the order of the strips. When all teams have finished, the team finishing first goes to the board and reads the story picture by picture. One team member should read the strip while another, (using a pointer), points to the picture. If the order is incorrect or if the pointer is not placed on the correct picture while a story strip is being read, any team may challenge the presenting team. The second team then has the opportunity to read the story to the class while the class follows the sequence on its story strips. The class also has the opportunity to challenge the team now presenting. The fairy tale allows for three skills to be use concurrently in the class period: listening, speaking, and reading. These skills are constantly reinforced during the group and class activity. The students are eager to be the first to sequence the strips correctly with the story and again to listen to their classmates as they read the sequence to them.

After a group has read the story correctly, a short quiz can quickly check comprehension of the story and the vocabulary used in the story. The quiz could be as simple as requiring the students to sequence ten randomly ordered story strips pre-selected by the teacher. These strips should contain the vocabulary words from the story as well as main events in the story.

For writing practice, lower-level students can be assigned to write a brief summary of the story by using the vocabulary learned in context. Advanced-level students can rewrite the story by (a) altering the ending, (b) adding characters, (c) changing the situations, (d) adding more details, or (e) can translate another story, or (f) can write and illustrate their own fairy tale.

All of the activities presented here review vocabulary, grammatical structures, conversational topices, cultural elements, etc., in a variety of ways. It is important to remember that variety in presentation or review of material is needed. In addition, devising a means of focusing the review on other ends (such as winning a game) is essential to make the reason for learning and remembering the material a useful and purposeful activity. Students respond enthusiastically to these activities because they share the common elements of excitement, purpose individual contribution, and group support in decision-making.

4

FLES PROGRAM EVALUATION: RATIONALE AND PROCEDURAL DESIGN

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The number of Foreign Language in the Elementary School (FLES) programs continues to increase across our country. Several state legislatures support strong FLES requirements, with other states following suit (Clark, 1988). Approximately twenty percent of all elementary schools nationwide currently offer FLES (Rhodes & Oxford, 1988). An additional indication of the growth, importance, and support of early foreign language learning was the inclusion of FLES in the ACTFL 1989 National Conference on Professional Priorities.

With the strong backing FLES is receiving, one would think that advocates would be ecstatic. Many FLES supporters, though, are guardedly optimistic about the future. These advocates watched FLES flourish in the fifties, and they also witnessed its virtual disappearance by the late 1960s. They understand that earlier FLES efforts lacked the various components necessary for enduring, successful programs. One synthesis of the literature reports six recurring reasons for discontinuation of FLES programs in the fifties and sixties:

1. lack of qualified teachers

2. unrealistic and/or inappropriate goals and objectives
3. incompatible pedagogy
4. lack of articulation
5. lack of parental support
6. lack of homework, grades, and evaluation (Heining-Boynton, 1990a).

If FLES programs had been periodically evaluated, perhaps weaknesses could have been diagnosed and corrected.

Many definitions of evaluation exist. One well-known definition states that evaluation is "the process of determining to what extent the educational objectives are actually being realized" (Tyler, 1950, 69). Another highly-accepted definition describes evaluation as "the assessment of merit or worth" (Scriven, 1967; Stufflebeam, 1974). Therefore, the "goodness" or "badness" of an educational program encompasses more than student test scores. Its "merit or worth" also hinges on the observations, judgements, opinions, and impressions of participants and members of the community.

Foreign language education, like other content areas on the curriculum, has been so concerned with measurement of student performance that overall program performance has been relatively overlooked. Nationally, FLES supporters are attempting to remedy the situation. For example, one of the six priorities listed in the FLES strand of the 1989 ACTFL National Conference on Professional Priorities is evaluation (Met & Rhodes, 1990). Although some may feel recommending FLES program evaluation restates the obvious, the fact remains that only a small percentage of schools conduct a periodic assessment of elementary school foreign language offerings[1].

The purpose of this article is to discuss the importance of program evaluation, beginning with a rationale for the process.

Next, is a discussion of the step-by-step procedures and approaches of evaluation design. Finally, this article will provide suggestions for practical applications of an educational design so that FLES teachers, coordinators, and/or principals can develop and conduct a program evaluation that will yield valuable information for future change and innovation.

RATIONALE FOR FLES PROGRAM EVALUATION

Often in education, curricular programs begin or change with no plan to judge the effectiveness of instruction. "New Math" replaced the "old math," which has since been superseded by "Math Our Way"; the "whole language" approach currently occupies a position of favor among numerous language arts teachers while phonics in *démodé*. How do we know that current practices are improvements over former ones? Commonly, schools utilize the outcomes of standardized tests and compare the students' scores from the current year to those of years past. Teachers, administrators, and parents frequently judge a program's success by the rise or fall of such test scores. School districts rarely develop local instruments that specifically assess a program's effectiveness apart from student achievement. Standardized tests do exist for FLES students, but they are not as widespread as in other content areas.[2] Also, standardized tests measure student achievement; they do not furnish specific descriptive information concerning the curriculum and its teachers.

Any educational program can be rated solely on student achievement, but that approach is narrow in scope. Brinkerhoff et al. (1983, 16) state that program evaluation is used to "find a problem, solve a problem, provide ongoing information, or judge ongoing program success." Additionally, program evaluation involves data collection for the purpose of justifying the continuation or termination of a program. For the purpose of this discussion, the rational for program evaluation comprises two broad categories: feedback and accountability.

Feedback. Program evaluation yields necessary descriptive data about a school's FLES offerings. The data feedback indicates curriculum strengths that can be enhanced as well as areas that require improvement. Such knowledge allows those in charge of FLES programs to make informed decisions regarding changes and innovations. A yearly survey of FLES teachers, administrators, elementary classroom teachers, children, and parents, offers a concrete report card of the program. The raw data show levels of satisfaction from one year to the next, giving FLES planners a numerical, longitudinal assessment. The numbers collected over a period of years also impart a strong defense for the inevitable justification of program continuance.

Accountability. Gone are the days of unquestioned spending in education. Programs must not only justify expenses; they must also justify their very existence. Even though states today are mandating early foreign language study, the intelligent FLES educator and advocate understands that tomorrow's legislator may not be as supportive. As funding comes and goes, the enduring curriculum is one that substantiates its effectiveness. The way to document program accomplishments is through evaluation.

A thorough program evaluation verifies a school district's thoughtful, written philosophy of foreign language education. That philosophy incorporates the latest rationale for articulated foreign language instruction, beginning in the elementary school and sequentially progressing to the middle and high schools (Fuchsen, 1989, 4). A prominent, convincing FLES rationale assists in educating all elementary classroom teachers, administrators, and community members.

FLES program evaluation also produces a verification of local goals, to discover if they are in line with our national goals. One reason FLES failed in the past was due to unrealistic goals; learners and their parents thought FLES children would become bilingual. With the minimal amount of time spent on instruction, bilingualism was an impossible outcome. Current national FLES goals take into account the realities of time spent yearly on instruction. Hence, no present FLES goal professes to impart fluency, but rather emphasizes an appreciation of culture with an introduction to the skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing the language (Rhodes and Schreibstein, 1983, 10).

To summarize the rationale for FLES program evaluation, one FLES teacher/coordinator provides the following reasons for FLES program evaluation:

1. to have a better understanding of our program's positive and negative impact;
2. to make decisions about the growth and development of the program while identifying areas to change or improve;
3. to open communication with evaluators;

4. to maintain accountability for effective use of resources;
5. to meet the expectations of the system.[3]

EVALUATION DESIGN: PROCEDURES AND APPROACHES

Some school districts may choose to use FLES program evaluation instruments that have already been written and tested, such as the FLES Program Evaluation Inventory (Heining-Boynton, 1991). If FLES teachers, curriculum planners, or administrators decide to create their own program evaluation instruments, they need to be aware of factors controlling program evaluation design. First, the design should provide for both formative and summative evaluation. In formative program evaluation, information is gathered to be used for program improvement. Summative evaluation assesses the program's worth (Brinkerhoff et al., 1983, 38; Fitz-Gibbon & Morris, 1978, 11).

When devising a program evaluation, the next issues to consider are design functions and their accompanying tasks. Important functions and tasks include:

1. the focus of the evaluation
2. evaluation model
3. information collection
4. analysis and interpretation of the data
5. data management
6. instrument evaluation (Brinkerhoff et al., 1983, 43-45).

The focus of an evaluation comprises many issues such as the purpose of the evaluation, who will be affected by the results, the questions asked, and the potential for the evaluation's success (Brinkerhoff et al., 1983, 43). For many, the focus represents the greatest hurdle that a program evaluation poses. Many educators mistrust the intentions of program appraisal. Teachers may fear for their jobs, worrying that the data collected will be misinterpreted and/or misused. FLES teachers are not immune to these feelings. The effective program evaluator explains to the FLES teachers that the results of the evaluation survey will document program strengths as well as point to areas needing improvement. Although no one enjoys being criticized, FLES teachers need to understand that submitting themselves and their program to scrutiny leads to a better program.

Along with explaining to FLES teachers the purpose of a program evaluation and how they personally will be affected, an administrator devising a survey must pay close attention to the questions asked. Questions such as "Does FLES in your school reinforce the elementary school curriculum?", "Do the parents support the study of foreign language in the elementary school?", and "Do the students receive grades?" address contemporary and historical FLES issues that must be surveyed (Heining-Boynton, 1990b & 1991). A less-than-thorough exploration and development of the evaluation's questions will yield an incomplete picture of current program conditions.

Also requiring attention is the formation of an evaluation model. These paradigms are developed through the use of criteria such as the Joint Committee Standards, or the Sanders and Nafziger Criteria (Brinkerhoff et al., 1983, 70). An evaluation model lists the progression of tasks that a program assessment entails. The Joint Committee Standards, for example, enumerate fifteen steps to be taken when devising an assessment, beginning with audience identification and ending with objective reporting.

Collecting information necessitates deciding how much data to gather. The FLES evaluation coordinator determines whether all participants are surveyed or if a sample of the population would yield ample descriptive data. To be taken into consideration also is the cost of administering the assessment. Some large school districts find surveying an entire population cost-prohibitive.

Other measurement issues involve the determination of validity and reliability of the instrument. Validity is "the degree to which an instrument measures what is purports to measure" (Borg & Gall, 1983, 275). Reliability is "the level of internal consistency or stability of a measuring device over time" (Borg & Gall, 1983, 281). To establish validity for a FLES evaluation survey, each questionnaire item is analyzed to assure consistency with the goals and objectives of the program. Program evaluators accomplish this by engaging a variety of professionals to critique the survey. They check to insure that the results will give a fair picture of a school's FLES offerings. Designing a FLES questionnaire for reliability requires clear directions, only one interpretation of an item, and the elimination of dual stems (e.g., FLES is fun and I am learning.).[4]

Analysis and interpretation of data engage the evaluator in developing procedures for collecting and coding the questionnaires as well as for selecting the methods to analyze and interpret the findings. Without adequate coding, FLES coordinators in large districts will not be able to identify individual schools or grade levels, and they will be unable to correct any weaknesses that might be present.

Managing the data requires decisions regarding who will tabulate, report, and store the data. Small districts call on the program coordinator; large districts require numerous personnel to assist in the counting, dissemination, and archiving of the responses.

Finally, the evaluation instrument and its process must be appraised to ascertain the effectiveness of the instrument as well as its administration. A pilot test aids the evaluators in identifying potential problems.[5]

EVALUATION DESIGN: PRACTICAL APPLICATION

FLES program evaluation possesses unique characteristics when considering the six functions of evaluation design (Brinkerhoff et al., 1983). First, FLES evaluators must make it clear that the survey will produce descriptive program information and documentation. If FLES educators have never been involved in a program assessment, they may be concerned, intimidated, or frightened by the process. They need to understand the intentions of those distributing the evaluation and how the findings will be used.

FLES evaluation design should allow data collection to be as streamlined as possible. Forms that are brief allow for higher numbers of returned questionnaires. FLES evaluations should be completed in ten minutes or less. The format "Strongly Agree (SA)," "Agree (A)," Disagree (D)," "Strongly Disagree (SD)," affords the respondent a rapid method for giving input, as does rating on a linear scale of one to five or one to ten. These formats allow the raw data to be scored and compiled more quickly than with open-ended essay type questions.[6] Insuring anonymity also produces a higher rate of return with more frank and honest responses. Another factor in FLES evaluation design to be determined is who the assessors will be. FLES program coordinators net the most complete account of a program's achievements when they survey a broad spectrum of individuals. It is suggested therefore, that FLES teachers, administrators, elementary classroom teachers, children, and parents supply input regarding their judgments, attitudes, feelings, and impressions of the FLES offerings.

Each school district must determine the most appropriate way to analyze and interpret its FLES program's evaluation data. In most cases, reporting the results as averages of a linear scale or in percentages of respondents who "strongly agree," "agree," "disagree," or "strongly disagree" gives the most useful, understandable summary of the gathered data.

Managing the administration of FLES program evaluation requires a FLES teacher or supervisor to coordinate the effort. FLES teachers should be given copies of the instrument in September in order that they become familiar with how the program will be assessed. The evaluation should take place in the spring, and the data tabulated as quickly as possible in order to provide feedback in a timely fashion. The FLES evaluation coordinator of a large school district arranges for individuals to assist with the circulation, collection, and tabulation of the forms.

Finally, the FLES evaluation instrument should be reviewed yearly to learn if it is reporting and measuring what is intended. The FLES evaluation administrator solicits comments from a sample of respondents, asking for their opinions and suggestions concerning the questionnaires.

FLES program evaluation instruments are already available for use by schools which do not have the time, resources, or desire to initiate their own. The FLES Program Evaluation Inventory (FPEI) is an example of a tested instrument available to schools (Heining-Boynton, 1991). The FPEI offers five different forms to collect data from FLES teachers, administrators, elementary classroom teachers, children, and parents. The FPEI bases the five-part survey on historical as well as contemporary FLES issues and concerns. The FPEI includes items that explore whether FLES programs of the nineties are avoiding the shortcomings of the past. The surveys probe fundamentals such as the qualifications of the FLES teachers, the appropriateness of program goals, objectives, and pedagogy, and the existence of parental support, articulation, homework, grades, and evaluation. Contemporary concerns such as workload and at-risk students round out the focus of the instruments.

An imperative step in a FLES program evaluation plan involves widespread dissemination of the findings. The FLES teachers review the report first, and the FLES coordinator encourages them to institute curricular changes and innovations based on the tallies. Elementary classroom teachers, administrators, the school board, and community also need to be apprised of the outcomes. This can be done through school and local newspapers. The more publicity about strong FLES offerings, the better! The attention will help to insure a long-lived, exciting FLES program.

CONCLUSION

The judged effectiveness of an educational program depends on more than the level of student achievement. Program assessment provides information based on observations and perceptions of teachers, administrators, students, and parents that attest to the merit or worth of the offerings. It is crucial for the continued life and well-being of FLES to complete timely, thorough, and organized self-evaluations. Effective program appraisals contribute vital knowledge about the health of FLES as well as concrete documentation of successes. Administrators, school board members, and others in decision-making positions must frequently be made aware of a district's outstanding FIES programs. The goal is to insure a permanent place in elementary school curricula for foreign language study.

END NOTES

[1] For example, in North Carolina where state-mandated K-6 foreign language instruction exists, only one district currently conducts a yearly formal program evaluation.

[2] The American Association of Teachers of French makes available a standardized proficiency exam that provides data on how students perform compared to national norms.

[3] This list was developed by Carol Orringer, FLES teacher and coordinator with the Chapel Hill-Carrboro (NC) City Schools.

[4] Borg and Gall (1983) and Brinkerhoff et al. (1983) provide a good introduction on how to establish validity and reliability.

[5] Brinkerhoff et al. (1983 47-49) offer an extensive checklist for critiquing a survey design.

[6] See Heining-Boynton (1991) for suggestions on format and survey questions.

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5

AN UNCOMMON INTERNSHIP: EXPLORING OPTIONS IN CAREERS ENHANCED BY FOREIGN LANGUAGE SKILLS

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Language as a liberating force, both in our lives and in our profession, was a theme in the inspirational message of Maya Angelou's Keynote Address at the 1990 ACTFL/-SCOLT Conference. Freedom and liberty are valued in the United States, and we will do much to protect, defend or promote these ideals. Consequently, we all contend that our students are "free" and that they have choices regarding what they do with their lives. Is it possible that we could enable them to enjoy their "freedom" even more? Could they apply and enjoy their language skills to a greater degree in a career of their choosing?

While career counseling is not inherently a part of every foreign language teacher's duties, it is essential that foreign language teachers assume such a role if they want their students to be informed and truly free in the choice of a profession and in the application of skills and knowledge acquired in the study of a foreign language. Most foreign language teachers, however, have neither the time nor the means of running a full-scale counseling service nor of acquiring and cataloging career information useful to students. An internship program is one way to address the problem on the college level. This description will present one such program through introductory information and sample "case studies."

The overall internship program at Macon College is actually business- and experience- oriented, and is set up to carry five credit hours, which cannot be used to satisfy core or degree requirements. Generally, it provides around 140 hours of on-the-job training. Permission was obtained to use this career internship option for foreign language students. Through this program, students are able to apply research skills in the real world and to plan for their future. In addition, they also have an opportunity to review and enhance their language skills through an individualized review which they design with the help of the director of the internship.

The internship program for foreign language students was initiated at Macon College in September, 1989. By the end of Spring Quarter 1991, sixteen students will have used this means to do the following:

a. research and develop a project about the job market and positions in which foreign language skills are considered essential/desirable, develop a project which relates directly to their own interests, or work in the foreign language program; and

b. review/practice language skills which they have already acquired while adding related skills which they will need (e.g., knowledge of culture and customs or the acquisition of specialized vocabulary). To quote an old adage: "Necessity is the mother of invention. "The decision to develop an internship opportunity

> for foreign language (FL) students was made to enable students with a solid FL background (usually from their high school studies to continue on an appropriate level in college without interruption. In the past, students were signing up for beginning Spanish in the fall quarter because it was the only Spanish offered; some had studied for as long as four years in a high school foreign language program.

As enrollment grows in the more advanced courses, and as placement procedures are developed which enable students to study in those courses in any given quarter, adjustments will be made in the FL internship. However, its success and the benefits students have gained from it warrant keeping the internship as an option for students of a foreign language to become familiar with career options--especially for those who want to use foreign language skills to enhance their marketability in areas such as business or the health professions. Currently, students in 101 may elect to participate in the program and are tested to confirm that they do not need the beginning Spanish course; they simply review their skills. FL majors or minors have the option of developing an individualized project or of working in the area of foreign language instruction for job-related experience (fourteen-hour per week minimum).

THE DESIGN OF THE PROGRAM

The guidelines found in the Macon College catalog were developed for the job-related internship. They are generally followed for the FL internship. However, some freshmen have been accepted into the program with less than the required fifteen credit hours of college work if their high school academic records and recommendations have indicated that they were mature, serious students capable of independent study. The five hours of credit which internships carry cannot apply to the Associate of Arts Degree requirements, but can provide students with documented work-related experience. Generally, the description of the program found in the MC Internship Program brochure represents all aspects of the FL internship. The brochure describes the overall program through the following questions and answers: What can an internship do for you?

-- Help you make a career choice.
-- Allow you to earn college credit while you are working.
-- Prepare you for the world of work.
-- Give you on-the-job experience.
-- Establish important career contacts.
-- Give you the extra edge in the job market after graduation.

Why do an internship now?

An internship provides practical career experience and in sight. An early internship will help you make the proper career choice before you have invested too much time and money.

What requirements must you meet to be an intern?

1. You must have completed 15 hours of credit at MC.

2. You must have a minimum 2.0 Grade Point Average.

3. You must be approved by the prospective employer, faculty instructor, and the coordinator of the Internship Program.

The FL internship requires a project and differs from internships in other discipline areas since some students are not actually "on the job" but are preparing themselves for employment while researching potential employment or completing a project which has been approved by the internship director. All too often, students do not have an opportunity to apply their research skills in the real world, and the business of "finding employment" is relegated to a job placement office. Students need to know how to locate potential employers and how to prepare for the requirements of those employers. Such knowledge will enable them to do their best when they are ready for employment.

CAREER MATERIALS TO SUPPORT THE FL INTERNSHIP

For students other than those going into teaching, materials have been gathered and placed at their disposal. Of these materials, the FL interns in the MC program have found that the career guides and source books (of employers with international firms or business interests in Georgia) which were developed by Dr. Nancy Kason at the University of Georgia in Athens, are extremely beneficial. Two interns who worked together in the fall of 1989 decided to develop a federal government resource notebook as their project. It is now available for other students and includes employment brochures and guides published by federal government agencies. It gives all basic information for students to consult as prospective employees of the various agencies. Since government agency information is revised on an annual basis, new interns may elect to compile their own current notebook.

THE WORK EXPERIENCE

It is relatively easy for those of us in teaching to help students who are planning to become teachers of a foreign language, or another subject for that matter. These students can complete an internship which closely resembles those offered in the business world through their work in the foreign language department. They assist in the foreign language laboratory, in daily tasks (such as reproducing materials for FL instructors) or in tutoring. Their experience differs from a work-study assignment since they must have specialized FL skills and receive no pay. Material and documents available for them to consult regard certification requirements and regulations, including career guides published by organizations such as the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages and Modern Language Association. Publications of other professional organizations are provided for them to use (e.g., *The French Review, Foreign Language Annals, Hispania, The Modern Language Journal,* and *The TESOL Quarterly).* Students document their time in an annotated log which explains their activities/duties. Interns not planning to teach spend comparable time on an individual or a group project (examples follow).

INTERNSHIP PROJECTS: SOME CASE STUDIES

In the past two years there has been variety in the projects submitted for the FL internship. Students have been interested in business and teaching opportunities, government work, the field of mass communications, development issues and employment possibilities, health-related careers, and missionary work abroad or outreach programs for Hispanics in the United States.

A sampling of the projects clarifies the open and flexible nature of the FL internship and the need to screen students carefully so that only students who are capable of self-discipline and self-directed study sign up for the course. This need also surfaces in their individualized language/culture study.

Students have developed general projects directly related to their career goals or needs, such as the compilation of the Career Resource Notebook. One student planning to go into television broadcasting visited an Atlanta television station, interviewed the director/-producer, some of the guests and the crew of an Hispanic program, and reported on the taping of the program. An unusual opportunity presented itself for another student interested in studying environmental issues. The president of the college, who is very active in the international projects of the Rotary Club, sent a document to the language department for translation regarding an irrigation project in Honduras and indicated that the task could be used as a class/student project. The translation, which required advanced language skills, was completed by the intern through individual and group work and the assistance of the internship director. A student who is studying to become a physical therapist conducted a survey of local physical therapists to determine (a) whether Spanish language skills are needed by therapists in our area, and (b) how therapists are coping if they need, but do not have, such skills. Her project included the identification of phrase books and other language materials which might be of interest to those entering the medical profession. A student preparing to enter the ministry compiled information regarding Hispanics in the United States and outreach programs of a religious nature which are serving them. Happily for current interns, one student's project in the fall of 1989 consisted of identifying and critiquing the Spanish language materials (books, tapes, programs, etc.) which have been made available for them to use in the language component of their internship. Current interns find her critiques useful when they are trying to locate a program which addresses their field of interest on their level of competence in the language. The information contained in her critique addresses both content and skill level. In addition, all components of each program available are listed, including answer keys.

LANGUAGE MATERIALS AND CROSS-CULTURAL INFORMATION

Students keep a log of their activities which documents and annotates their learning and practice in the language skill area as well as their cultural readings and progress on projects. A number of good programs for language practice have been identified, and materials are constantly added to those already available for interns to work with in the language laboratory area, or to check out if there is more than one copy or if the material is not needed by others. Only a couple of general programs will be mentioned here. Almost any program can be adapted for a drill/practice/review approach, especially if it has accompanying workbooks and answer keys. Since the regular classes are currently using the *¿Qué tal?* series by Random House and the computer program which is provided with this series is housed in the Writing Lab, many students work with this series. Students have mentioned the following as some of the most helpful materials provided in addition to the textbook program: the *Basic Spanish Grammar Series* from D.C. Heath (the workbooks and accompanying cassettes relate to job-specific areas, e.g., Business and Finance, Social Services, Medicine, etc.), the *AMSCO* workbooks and program for listening comprehension, and various phrase books published for use with medical personnel.

Information relating to culture and cross-cultural communication (primarily in English and as readings) is available in the foreign language area as well. Students are encouraged to read from a variety of sources and may use the library itself as a resource. In the language resource area some of the most informative and well-documented cross-cultural information has come from the publications of Brigham Young University (e.g., their *Culturgrams*) and the Experiment in International Living. A number of their publications are housed in the foreign language resource area.

EVALUATIONS AND RAMIFICATIONS

How successful has the Internship Program for foreign language students been? The students address the value of the experience in an evaluation which is submitted at the end of the quarter in which they complete their project and in a letter written to prospective interns. An intern going into teaching stated: ". . . it was a great help to have. . . Spanish and teaching methodology books at my disposal." A student interested in mass communication said: "A program like this has. . . unlimited potential in that it allows students to enjoy learning."He continued (in his letter to prospective future interns): ". . . what you put into the program is surely what you will get out of the program." One student specified the ways in which the internship helped him. He said: ". . . it has let me refresh the Spanish I learned in high school. . . it has helped me to develop good research habits in finding material. . . I have learned more about my preferred career as it associates with Spanish." The students who developed a career guide for government positions wrote: "We are convinced a foreign language should be considered. . . not merely an enhancement but. . . an essential part of ones' profile" and "We are grateful for having the unique opportunity to 'break ground' in the foreign language department by providing a career guide for students interested in government science."

It goes without saying that the internship program adds to the responsibilities of the teacher whose task is to assist students engaging in what is for many their first "independent study" project. The teacher must find time for conferences, as well as identify and provide appropriate materials in both the area of language skill development and practice and the area of career opportunities. In addition, materials for individual use must be adapted from materials which were originally designed for class work. Monitoring each intern's work requires the investment of additional hours in the language resource center. Such an assignment is a challenge, but the rewards are many. It is truly a liberating experience for all and makes students aware of the "real world" in which they understand the need (and time required) to master a foreign language. Foreign language teachers who work with such a program cannot help but reaffirm their commitment to teach toward that end.

6

AFRO-HISPANIC LITERATURE: CULTURAL AND LITERARY ENRICHMENT FOR THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

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In foreign languages more than other disciplines, we realize the importance of teaching a world that is broad and multi-faceted, and which includes and represents with fairness all constituent groups. Yet millions of people who are of African descent in the Spanish-speaking countries may be omitted from the cultural, literary, and linguistic content of our Spanish classes if we do not take steps to fill in the cultural void. So, too, are students of Spanish in the United States denied access to the stylistic and cultural richness of the Afro-Hispanic world. The intent of this paper is to facilitate acquisition of information that foreign language faculty can use to include Afro-Hispanic literature and culture in Spanish classes in an integrated way from the first year through graduate school.

TOWARD A DEFINITION OF AFRO-HISPANIC LITERATURE/CULTURE

Many teachers of Spanish might ask: "What is Afro-Hispanic literature? I have never heard of it." There has, through the years, been a great deal of discussion about what it is. Does one include, for example, novels like Gomez de Avellandea's *Sab* (1841), Villaverde's *Cecilia Valdéz* (1839), or the anti-slavery novels such as *Francisco (1839) of Suárez y Romero and El negro Francisco* (1873) by Zambrana? All these novels treat favorably the black Latin American, seen usually in a slavery situation. Does Afro-Hispanic literature include the work of non-black poets such as Carpentier, Guirao, Ballagas and Pales Malos, Caribbean poets who were masters of using African-sounding words for musical and rhythmic effect? Most scholars would argue that these novels and poems are not authentic Afro-Hispanic literature for they lack the true black perspective. They view from the outside and, though well-meaning, too often fall prey to the apologetic and condescending attitude rightly opposed by black students and scholars.

What, then, constitutes Afro-Hispanic culture and literature? Definitions vary. Any attempt to arrive at a definition of black Latin American authors/literature cannot fail to take into account the term *mestizaje*, which is central to an understanding of the black experience in Latin America. *Mestizaje* means the blending of races, and many Latin American countries have insisted that the black, white and Indian races have blended perfectly into one. But for the black Latin American, it can mean several things: it can be a blending of races in which there is equal respect for all; or it can be seen as a means of absorbing or erasing a minority culture considered to be an inferior culture by the majority culture.

Most of the authors designated as Afro-Hispanic have accepted their African origins, and some insist proudly on them, reaffirming that their blackness is worthy, that their accomplishments and the contributions they have made to the culture are significant, and that they resist absorption into another culture, even though that attempt may be presented as benign. The Afro-Hispanic writer rejects racism, and instead of trying to blend into the white aesthetic, is intent upon forging a black aesthetic, one which, while universal in its themes, retains the concerns of black Latin Americans and reflects the unique linguistic and cultural aspects of their society.

In reading Afro-Hispanic literature, one must keep in mind the unique setting in which the writers existed. From the beginning, the problems of white versus black aesthetics and publication difficulties existed (presses were controlled by the majority race). Popular literature and a primarily illiterate constituency, as well as constant social and economic pressures, are all part of the black writers' everyday concerns. During the slavery period, the very lack of freedom and lack of privilege to write were deterrents to production. The problem of peer pressure from other groups, ranging from whites to Indians and mulattoes, added then as now to a black writer's preoccupation.

PRINCIPAL TRAITS OF AFRO-HISPANIC LITERATURE

One very rewarding approach in the study of Afro-Hispanic literature can be the analysis of thematic and stylistic features. The literature we are exploring can be said to contain the following important traits:

1. A syncretic core

Though in many ways Afro-Hispanic literature is different or unique, it is also composite, for in it features of many other schools converge to produce a syncretic core. The continuity and common elements, particularly between romanticism and modernism on the one hand and negrism on the other hand, offer rich, relatively untouched areas for study and research.

2. The re-affirmative spirit

An essential trait of Afro-Hispanic literature is the re-affirmative spirit. It is advocacy, a defiant zeal to substantiate and to continue what is considered as having been already established by ancestors. It is a tendency to reflect the dynamism, accomplishments and glorious traditions of an ethnic group which, though having been subjected and exploited, is nevertheless resolved to reassure its socio-cultural identity.

3. The universal fraternity

Another characteristic is universal fraternity---concern for transcending all ethnic groups, a concern which encompasses a broader humanity. The emphasis is on issues of social justice for the oppressed and poor of all races. The wide-spread biological *mestizaje* in Latin America has also helped to fill Afro-Hispanic literature with protagonists representative of many ethnic groups and mixtures--an element rarely seen in other literatures. Of paramount importance is the noble quality of human empathy, and the desire for a just society.

4. The satirical tone

There is also in the literature an inclination to use ironic and derisive wit to attack or expose the injustices in society. Given the fact that the dominant theme of Afro-Hispanic literature is the harsh social and economic reality, the satirical tone, both in poetry and prose, seems an obvious corollary.

5. Nature

Another characteristic is the emphasis on nature's panoramic beauty, but in a more vital, animistic, and telluric sense. It should be noted that in Latin American countries, blacks were concentrated in particular pockets or regions, and were often obliged to reside in one or two provinces. The Afro-Ecuadorean writer, Adalberto Ortiz, apart from reflecting the geography of his native province, Esmeraldas, and portraying elements of nature as having a life of their own, has classified the intimate spiritual relationship of some blacks with nature as "almost sexual."

6. The kinesthetic emphasis

In Afro-Hispanic literature there is on occasion, a spiritual exaltation of black women. More frequently, the concentration is on the more voluptuous qualities, such as those of the dancer.

7. Romantic sentimentalism

This is the tendency to bare emotions and frustration in the face of harsh conditions.

8. The resonant pitch

Afro-Hispanic literature is replete with onomatopoeic rhythms, intensive phrasal patterns and sonorous African linguistic elements.

A CHRONOLOGICAL APPROACH TO THE AUTHORS

After becoming aware of the main traits which distinguish Afro-Hispanic literature, many educators might want to explore the literature and culture using the chronological or historical approach. This view enables the student to see developments over time as they affect the black Latin American. Richard Jackson (1979) divides production of Afro-Hispanic literature into three periods:

Early Literature (1821-1921)
Major Period (1922-1949)
Contemporary Period (1950-present).

If one uses this approach, some account should first be taken of the folklore or oral literature. A good introduction to this can be found in the work of Lidia Cabrera, a Cuban who has published several different collections of tales, some of which she has enhanced, others which were transcribed more or less as heard. These collections are widely available.

Moving into slave narrative, Juan Francisco Manzano (1767-1854) wrote his *Autobiografía* which detailed his life as a slave. Plácido [Jose Manuel Valdés] (1767-1844), a free black Cuban, wrote poetry before his execution for plotting to free slaves and gain independence for Cuba.

Fitting chronologically into this period are Martín Morúa Delgado, of Cuba; Candelario Obeso of Colombia; and Panama's poet, Gaspar Octavio Hernández. Candelario Obeso, an emotional poet who eventually committed suicide, represents very well the last half of the nineteenth century, with his authentic language and scenes from his home town.

The major period from 1922 to 1949 saw the rise of Nicolás Guillén in Cuba, Adalberto Ortiz in Ecuador, and Arnoldo Palacios in Colombia. A chronological approach must include the work of Guillén, whose *Motivos de son* caused a great stir. Adalberto Ortiz's novels are very important also.

The contemporary period features Manuel Zapata Olivella of Colombia, Nelson Estupiñán Bass of Educador, Quince Duncan of Costa Rica, and Carolos Guillermo Wilson of Panama. Reading selections from these authors will give the reader insight into present-day attitudes and concerns of the black Latin-American.

THE AFRO-HISPANIC NOVEL

Anyone familiar with Afro-Hispanic literature will cite the novel as a key to understanding the evolution of black literature in Latin American. A suggested order for reading the outstanding novels might be the following:

1. *Matalaché* (Albújar, Peru, 1928). The story of a mulatto slave who falls in love with his master's daughter, this novel still reflects some stereotyping, as the protagonist is represented as a bifurcated personality with black features and white aspirations.

2. *Juyungo* (Ortiz, Ecuador, 1942). This novel, winner of the first prize as the best Ecuadorian novel in 1942, has a protagonist a black warrior who evolves from racial hatred to class struggle, from social problems to the fight against injustice.

3. *Las Estrellas son negras* (Palacios, Colombia, 1949). This realistic novel, depicting the vivid struggles of a family in the Choco region of Colombia, follows the protagonist through a 24-hour period as he comes to grips with his situation.

4. *Cumboto* (Díaz-Sáchez, Venezuela, 1950). This novel, chosen by the Ibero-American Novel Project of the William Faulkner Foundation as the most notable novel published in Ibero-American between 1945 and 1962, dramatizes *mestizaje* on a personal and symbolic level, combining it with a richly poetic rendition of folklore, sociology, and anthropology.

5. *Chambacú, Corral de negros* (Olivella, Colombia, 1963). An interesting family is followed as they struggle into the civil rights period, some succumbing to the street life around them, some rising to lead people to equality.

All these novels were chosen because of their importance and recognition as works of quality, not only in Afro-Hispanic literature, but also in Latin American literature considered as a whole. The novels represent several different geographical regions, illustrating the particular regional characteristics of their origins. The forty-year span in production saw some of the most significant changes in social history, and will help the reader trace changes in the society over time.

CONCLUSION

One must bear in mind that literature is one of the major instruments in aiding students to develop a broader point of view and in promoting understanding of diverse cultures. Publications such as the *Journal of Higher Education* remind us of the shortage of foreign language teachers in general and of black ones in particular. At the same time, the foreign language curriculum and course content in many high schools, colleges and universities continue to highlight the conventional works of literature, while offering little reflection on the artistic output and the historical achievements of other groups. There is, therefore, an urgent need for a more pluralistic outlook, an urgent need to diversify--not only to attract more students, but also to achieve a greater understanding of the variegated Hispanic world.

Since in literature there are constantly shifting patterns, new elements and new schools, a fascinating approach can be a comparative one, which emphasizes the parallels existing between the various literary tendencies or movements. In this regard, the common elements between and among movements, such as Romanticism, Modernism and Negrism, would be particularly attractive and rewarding. Whatever approach we take, we must move together to diversify and enrich our offering, which, while enriching our students, will enhance our own understanding and appreciation for life as it is reflected in all its forms.

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7

PRACTICAL SECOND-LANGUAGE APPLICATIONS OF THE THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF FRENCH IMMERSION IN CANADA

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INTRODUCTION

The French immersion program described in this article is a program of bilingual education launched in Montreal in 1965. At that time a group of anglophone parents convinced a school board in the suburbs to start an experimental bilingual class in which instruction was to be given to anglophone children in both English and French. The success of the experience led to the opening of more classes and more programs which developed into the widely popular French immersion education. Immersion refers to the method used to teach all school subject matters through a second language, in this case French.

French immersion education begins at the kindergarten level. For the first three years, the students who arrive with no prior French language skills receive all of their instruction through the medium of the French language. Beginning at grade 3, formal English instruction is introduced for about 20% of school instruction time. The school subjects taught in English receive gradually more instruction time until instruction becomes 60% in French and 40% in English at the grade 7 level. The proportions are reversed at the secondary school level until instruction in French is reduced to about 20% of total instruction time at grade 12. Although French immersion has thus far been offered only from K to 12, some universities and post-secondary institutions in Canada have offered some courses in French.

The popularity of the program has helped it expand at a phenomenal rate. From one school and a handful of students in the experimental classes twenty-five years ago, there are now more than 17,000 schools offering French immersion instruction to approximately 250,000 students in all major Canadian cities. The popularity of the program is such that school boards, unable to cope with the demand because of the scarcity of qualified teachers, often resort to a sort of lottery system to choose from among the many applicants.

There are a number of reasons which account for the remarkable success of the French immersion programs in Canada. The most important of these include:

a. the changing attitudes toward the learning of a second language prompted by the waning of isolationist tendencies and increased cultural contacts with the rest of the world. Related to this reason is the dissatisfaction with the mediocre results achieved by traditional second-language teaching methodologies.

b. the growing acceptance of the bilingual character of a Canadian national identity operating in a multicultural setting, despite the recent highly-publicized vocal expressions of anti-French sentiments which took the form of city council resolutions across the country declaring their cities to be English-only municipalities. In reality, a recent poll showed that more Canadians than ever support the bilingual identity of the country, and 75% of all Canadian respondents support bilingual education in the two official languages of the country. This support is even greater among francophones: 90% of francophone respondents to the same survey said that they supported bilingual (English/French) education for their children (National Survey, February 1990).

c. the positive empirical research and evaluation studies' findings about the academic and linguistic benefits of bilingualism generally, and about French immersion educational achievements in particular.

d. the growing perception among Canadians of the role of bilingual competencies as an instrument of socio-economic mobility in an officially bilingual country (Safty, 1989).

At the socio-educational level, French immersion education presents some interesting characteristics that partly account for its success. French immersion children are largely majority children, i.e., they come from anglophone homes. Their first language (English) enjoys high status power and is not threatened by the second language. Their socio-economic background is middle class and therefore more likely to provide them with a linguistically rich home environment. The majority of

French immersion teachers are native French speakers; the rest possess native-like fluency. Students are particularly enthusiastic and action-oriented. Classroom learning experiences are organized in activities that clearly emphasize interactions and oral communications between students, on the one hand, and between teacher and students, on the other. Parents are actively involved in school teacher-parent committees and take a sustained and marked interest in their children's school progress. They are also politically organized, enjoy a high profile, and are recognized as important stake-holders in policy-making decisions. French immersion students exhibit self-confidence and are aware of teachers' and parents' high expectations for their success. All of these factors and certain organizational decisions which may discourage access to the program to all but the most determined parents have prompted some critics to charge that French immersion education caters to the elite (Olson and Burns, 1983).

As a second language learning methodology, the French immersion experience in Canada may have revolutionized traditional approaches to language teaching insofar as it highlighted the communicative function of the language and the necessity of viewing the language as a vehicle for communication rather than as a subject to be studied. At the same time, French immersion has had a dramatic impact on pedagogical approaches to all second-language teaching approaches insofar as it has demonstrated the possibility of using with profit the linguistic and sociolinguistic principles that facilitate first-language acquisition. The National Core French (1989) Project, launched by the Canadian Association of Second Language Teachers and funded by the Canadian government, recently proposed a syllabus-based second-language curriculum called "communicative/experiential" (The National Core French Study). It is based on many of the operative principles of French immersion. This article proposes to review some of the sociolinguistic and linguistic principles underpinning the French immersion approach to language teaching. It will also identify areas in second-language learning and teaching in which the insights offered by the French immersion experience can have practical and constructive applications.

FRENCH IMMERSION PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS IN FRENCH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE (FSL)

I. French immersion primarily relies on the assumption that it is possible to create in the school a natural imitative environment that resembles the one in which the child learns his first language. For language learning purposes, the home environment may be described as one in which there is constant exposure to the language, the parents as role models use a caretaker speech to communicate with the child and to introduce progressively in their speech more complex sentence structures as the child's comprehension grows. The child's linguistic comprehension precedes oral production; there is total integration between culture and language, each reinforcing the other. The level of parental education influences the variety and richness of the child's linguistic environment and has an impact on first language learning. First language learning at home is a process of trial and error. Naturally, French immersion could not hope to replicate all these conditions at the school, but it achieves what may be considered a satisfactory approximation with remarkably good results for second-language learning.

The application of this principle to second-language situations means among other things that the linguistic environment in the second-language classroom must be as close an approximation as possible of the natural imitative environment of the first language. To achieve this second-language teachers need to interiorize a number of operational principles.

a. The teacher's role as a language model and mediator between the language and the learner is crucially important for it behooves him/her to make the learning environment linguistically rich and varied and to organize learning activities which cover a wide gamut of authentic and relevant language experiences.

b. The second language must cease to be a language to study and become a language to use. Language activities should, therefore, emphasize the "use" of the language in as many authentic and varied language situations as it is possible to create.

c. Students will acquire and learn the second language by imitation and through a process of trial and error. Therefore, linguistic errors need to be viewed as an integral part of the learning process and should not be construed to mean failure to learn.

d. The development of the second-language learner's comprehension and oral production skills should be given priority over other skills in the first years of exposure to the second language.

II. French immersion is also based on the assumption that early exposure to a second language is better than late exposure. This assumption is challenged by some who argue that there is no evidence to suggest that there is "a drastic decline" of second-language learning abilities at any age (Ekstrand, 1979). It is also challenged on the basis of anthropological research findings on non-Western societies, suggesting that adults can learn a second language perfectly (Hill, 1970). Other researchers argue that any advantage young learners may have can be compensated for by using appropriate teaching approaches with older learners (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1981). Research on the authentic control of the phonology of a second language, however, supports the notion that children acquire authentic pronunciation while adults generally do not (Brown, 3: 48-49). In addition, while adults will acquire the morphology and the syntax of a second language faster than children, young learners will ultimately attain higher proficiency (Krashen, Long, and Scarcella, 1979). Children are believed to demonstrate greater language learning abilities than adults (Edwards & Casserly, 1976), possibly because of their brain plasticity in large areas of uncommitted cortex--especially in the left hemisphere where the structures of language are laid down--which diminishes as the child grows older and passes from the natural imitative language-learning stage to the conceptual learning stage. French immersion implicitly accepts the validity of this notion and consequently places considerable store on the authentic control of the phonology of the second language during the first years of the program. This results, in the initial stages, in the relegation to secondary importance of the issues of morphology and syntax and the valorization of comprehension and oral production skills. French immersion also derives benefit from a corollary to the principle of "early is better": the concept that children's metalinguistic competencies experience their fastest growth between the ages of 4 and 8 years (Hakes, 1980). This means that at this age the child may be able to learn a second and a third language almost as easily as he learned his first language (Wilton, 1978).

Practically speaking, second-language teachers can use with profit the principle of early is better. The most obvious route to take would be to persuade the school administration to introduce second-language classes from the earliest possible grades. School administrators and parents need to be reassured that it is possible for linguistic and cognitive competencies to develop simultaneously in L1 and L2 (Wilton, 1978). Any careful planning for the introduction of immersion programs and the expansion of second-language programs must take into account the availability of qualified teachers, the impact on established school programs and personnel, the adequacy of teaching resources and curriculum materials, and the need to secure the support of senior district administrators.

III. The major methodological thrust of French immersion is the so-called communicative approach to language teaching. The students are provided with learning situations that emphasize oral sills and a wide range of communicative competencies (Van Ek, 1986; Glucksber, Krauss, and Higgins, 1975). The underlying assumption is that learning a language is learning to use that language. The goal is to produce students who are "functionally bilingual" (Beatens Beardsmore, 1982), i.e., able to use the second-language in a variety of authentic situations.

The practical transfer of this principle from French immersion to second-language classes can be facilitated in a number of ways. First, second-language teachers can organize their language activities around meaningful content of interest to the students, emphasizing the use of the language. One way of doing that would be to proceed by themes identified by the students themselves. The thematic approach is used by many second-language teachers who find that the flexibility it offers allows for enhanced cultural awareness and improved linguistic skills (King, 1990). A second possible way of implementing the principle of the primacy of the functional use of the language consists of organizing immersion weekends in which the second-language learners will spend the weekend with a family speaking the second language. A third way consists in organizing regular field trips to various areas of the community where the second language is spoken, and in inviting members of that community to come to the classroom to make presentations in the second language about areas of knowledge already familiar to the students through the first language.

IV. French immersion accepts the notion that there may be interferences between English (the first language of the majority of the students) and the second language being learned, in this case French. But the similarities between the two languages and the positive transfers they facilitate are much more significant in terms of linguistic and cognitive development than the differences. Ringborn (1987) drew attention to the important role that previous knowledge, cross-linguistic and intra-linguistic similarities play in facilitating second-language learning. Linguistic skills acquired in the first language may be tapped to facilitate the acquisition and the development of linguistic skills in the second language (Adamson, 1988).

This can be accomplished more readily in the case of languages sharing considerable commonalities such as French and English (English and German; French, Italian and Spanish) than with languages sharing little or no similarities (English and Chinese or French and Arabic). Thus the considerable commonalities of French and English Man be put to profitable use by the second-language teacher. For instance, the common genetic sources and the use by English and French (and Spanish and Italian) of Latin and Greek loan words in the form of radicals, prefixes, and suffixes, have resulted in considerable vocabulary similarities. One study identified 4500 anglicisms in French and 6000 gallicisms in English (Mackenzie, 1939, cited in Hammer, 11:66). A systematic review of the *Larousse Dictionnaire Moderne Français-Anglais* (1960) found that there were almost 11,000 English-French cognates with the same or similar spelling and meaning (Hammer, 1976), and concluded that the use of cognates (for example, German *wasser* and English *water)* can help vocabulary acquisition in the second language.

V. Language learning in French immersion is contextualized. That is to say the language learning in French occurs almost as a by-product of the children's interaction with meaningful content. In other words, the language is used more as a vehicle for teaching subject matter than it is studied as a subject. The underlying assumption is that children are more interested in content than in the form of what they learn (McLaughlin, Rossman & McLeod, 1983). Further, the development of the child's intelligence is assumed to influence positively and to give impetus to the development of his linguistic abilities. Cognitive growth may precede and consequently reinforce linguistic growth. In the French immersion methodology, the primary focus is not the learning of a second language but rather the learning of academic content through the medium of a second language.

The practical application of this principle of contextualization can be facilitated by organizing second-language activities in such a fashion so as to extend knowledge already acquired in other school subject matter using the second language as a medium of instruction. This may be accomplished through the creation of mini-immersion experiences. Specifically, the second-language teacher, in cooperation with the school administrators and other teachers involved, decides on a block of time during the school year--say the first two weeks of October and the first two weeks of March--and declare them to be immersion weeks. This declaration means that during this time the second-language learners will have a mini-immersion experience in which they will be totally immersed in the second language. All school subjects will be taught during this experience by using the second language as a medium of instruction. Obviously this strategy can be implemented more easily at the elementary level than at the secondary level with its compartmentalized and specialized approach to teaching. Alternatively, mini-immersion experiences can be created in different ways, for instance, one day a week may be declared immersion day in which the second language becomes the sole language of communication in the classroom. The second-language teacher can also, in cooperation with colleagues and administrators, teach some class periods of another school subject by using the second language as the language of instruction. Thus, a social studies project may be taught in Spanish; an arts project may be conducted in French. Physical education is a particularly interesting activity to teach in the second language. The spontaneous and energetic impulses physical education helps release in the students create a dynamic disposition to receive and use information sensitized by the "heat" of the physical energy and excitement. The use of the second language in a physical education class can give second-language learning a naturalness and an authenticity that classroom situations cannot duplicate.

CONCLUSION

The French immersion experience in Canada is generally considered the most successful teaching program in the annals of foreign language teaching (Krashen, 1984: 61). It has its share of critics and detractors and falls short of achieving what many people unfairly expected to be perfect bilingualism. But it does achieve what it set out to accomplish: the imparting of functional bilingual competencies, in the sense of being able to use the second language in a variety of authentic situations, to students who otherwise would not be considered functionally bilingual. It does so by boldly challenging many of the erroneous assumptions about bilingualism and by giving a vivid demonstration of the validity of a number of sociolinguistic and linguistic principles. The most significant of these may be summarized as follows:

a. A second language can be learned effectively if an approximation of the natural imitative environment in which the first language was learned can be created at school.

b. A second language is more easily learned when children are exposed to it in a sustained fashion from an early age.

c. Since the principal function of a language is its communicative attribute, learning a language should mean learning how to use that language for communicative purposes.

d. A second language, like a first language, can be learned effectively if it is presented in a context of meaningful and relevant content to which the learner can relate.

There may be little by way of revolutionary thought in these preceding principles, but the challenge resides not in intellectually apprehending their meaning but in interiorizing their philosophical implications. This, in effect, affects not only how second languages are taught but also how we relate to all languages as ubiquitous symbols of culture and indispensable tools of communication. Languages will no longer be a collection of incomprehensible "foreign" codes representing alien and distant cultures. They will come to be more generally perceived as tools of functional communication and creative expressions. Learning a second and a third language will be more widely viewed as an enriching, and linguistically and culturally stimulating experience--one of the few experiences which, like music, transcend man-made artificial differences to connect with and highlight the common destiny of humanity.

Finally, it is necessary to say a few words about language and culture. It is commonplace nowadays to assert that a language cannot be divorced from its culture, but it is a statement that bears repeating. Language learning is intimately linked to learning about the culture of which the language is a powerful symbol. Learning a second language becomes, therefore, learning a symbol of intercultural communication. And it is this aspect of intercultural communication that needs to be emphasized. French immersion does not offer an example in this regard since it is essentially based on a school curriculum which is identical to the English curriculum cast in all the paradigms of the dominant culture (Safty, 1988). Effective intercultural communication involves more than a simple intellectual appreciation of an "alien" culture. It requires the establishment of bridges of empathic interactions between two cultures with different but valuable and equal codes and symbols for the interpretation of man's existence. Learning a second language needs to be viewed no longer as a window (Corson, 1989) through which the culture can be observed but as a wide-open door through which the culture makes itself accessible. The second language learner is invited to enter and "feel" the creative energies, relate to the communicative codes and the interpretive symbols that collectively are enabling a group of people to make sense of, give meanings to, and point to new directions in their common existence. The least the second language learner can do is to accept graciously the invitation and attempt to relate empathically to the culture that has just laid its soul bare.

Practically speaking, the second-language classroom can become a meeting point of different cultures. Representatives of the culture of the second language should become frequent visitors to the second-language classroom. This will give the language and its culture relevancy and immediacy that surpass many academic activities that can be organized. The sociology of settlement of new immigrants in North America is such that there is little equal interaction between representatives of the dominant culture and the new immigrants. The classroom can be a forum from which the cultural values of the second language can be presented in a valorizing fashion by the representatives of the culture. These cultural interactions should help demystify differences while emphasizing commonalities--a necessary step toward lowering prejudices and facilitating equal interactions. The learning of a second language as an intellectual and affective intercultural communicative tool can make a significant contribution to this process.

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8

CREATIVE WRITTEN TESTING

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In the past several years much attention has been given to proficiency in second language learning, especially oral proficiency. Most foreign language professionals are familiar with the oral proficiency interview (OPI) and realize the value of such testing. For these teachers, the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines and the OPI have caused a rethinking of the methods used in the foreign language classroom. As part of the proficiency movement, much of the current focus in the classroom is on teaching language in context, and Omaggio's landmark text *Teaching Language in Context* is used as a source and guide by many foreign language teachers.

Nevertheless, many teachers are reluctant to abandon the more traditional form of testing which produces a quantitative score and which can be administered to large groups of students in a limited time frame. By being creative in preparing tests and by allowing creativity on the part of the students, teachers can incorporate many of the principles associated with proficiency-oriented instruction into a traditional testing format.

The testing strategies suggested in this article are based on these premises: (1) testing in context is better than testing with a series of unrelated discrete items; (2) students prefer contexts that are familiar to them; (3) vocabulary assessment without lists of words to be translated is good; and (4) today's students respond well to visual stimuli. Since these premises have been discussed in different articles and books, the rationale for them will not be repeated here. However, the bibliography gives suggestions for reading on this topic.

By using some creativity in the design of the items, teachers can prepare tests based on the above premises. In this article two forms of creativity are discussed. One is an artistic creativity which requires the students or teacher to draw, and the other is linguistic creativity which involves eliciting original answers from the students. The two aspects are combined in some of the testing suggestions presented.

Because we are living in a visually-oriented society, our students respond well to images. In fact, it often seems that images evoke better responses than does the printed word. The use of pictures and other realia has long been a strategy used by foreign language teachers to stimulate student responses. Teachers have found that the use of visual media seems to facilitate the process of linking meaning to target language words without inserting the native language in the thought process. Therefore, if visual stimuli are used extensively in classroom activities, such stimuli certainly have a place in the testing program also.

USING PICTURES TO TEST VOCABULARY

Many teachers feel that testing vocabulary is still an essential ingredient of the learning process. The traditional vocabulary quiz is a list of words in one language to be translated into the other. For example:

Pictures can be used to test verbs also. It is fairly easy to assemble a supply of pictures or drawings of people engaged in various activities. These drawings can be set in columns on the test for identification by the students. The teacher indicates the subject and verb tense to be used. Several of the pictures should be relatively ambiguous so that two or three verbs are possible for the same picture, thereby giving the students some choice and reinforcing the concept that there is not always only one correct answer.

Drawing and Labeling: The next step after labeling, and one which is more fun for both students and teacher, is to have the students first draw something and then label the vocabulary items. To test the vocabulary for the rooms of the house using this technique, the teacher asks the students to draw a house and then label the rooms. The previous example which required the students to label a drawing provided by the teacher affords the teacher more control over the vocabulary tested, but with appropriate directions, the students can be led to produce the desired lexical items. For example:

Draw a picture or a floor plan of the house you would like to have when you are 30. You may have as many rooms as you like, but you will need 6 different rooms for full credit.

Since most students will know only those words which were presented in class, they will use these words in creating their drawings. If they learned other words as a result of a similar activity in class they should also be acceptable answers. The grading is essentially the same as it would be for the quiz described above. However, instead of producing a list of translations out of context, the students are asked to produce words in a meaningful context.

Write the following words in Spanish:

1. living room
2. kitchen
3. bedroom
4. bathroom
5. dining room
6. basement

Fortunately, most teachers have become more creative in testing the acquisition of lexical items. By using more creative ways to test vocabulary, such as incorporating pictures rather than presenting lists of words, the teacher can design quizzes that permit some variety in the answers, that link vocabulary to context, and that avoid the use of the native language in the testing process. Pictures can be incorporated into the testing structure in various ways. The pictures can be provided to the students or drawn by them. Pictures can be used as a basis for composition or as a means of testing listening or reading comprehension. Pictures can replace lists of words to test lexical items. There are numerous possibilities such as those described below.

Labeling: The most basic vocabulary test with pictures is one in which the students label illustrations of the vocabulary items being tested. For example:

1. Label the rooms of the house pictured.
2. Label the articles of clothing on this page from a store catalog.
3. Label the animals that we see on Mr. Brown's farm.

Two other samples of questions of this type are illustrated below.

1. (Provide outline figures of a man and a woman.) Dress Gloria and Pepe and label the items of clothing that you put on them. You will need ten items for full credit. (You may receive up to three extra points for additional items.)

2. Draw a picture of your favorite monster and label its body parts. Be sure to include definite articles. You will need ten items for full credit. (You may receive up to three bonus points for additional items.)

Drawing and Describing: Student drawings can be used to enliven a test. Even though the students could be asked to write a paragraph without a drawing, asking them to describe something that they have drawn not only makes the test more interesting, but also helps the students to focus on what to say. By picturing the subject in their minds and then transferring that image to paper, the students may overcome that mental block which often arises when asked to describe something. Every teacher has heard students complain that they do not know what to say in response to a testing prompt. Examples of test items:

1. Make a drawing of the teacher. Then write a description of what you have drawn. You should include at least six adjectives in your description.
2. Draw a picture of three of your family members and then write three sentences describing each one. You may include yourself if you wish.

3. Draw a picture of your bedroom and then write a paragraph describing it to me. Tell me what is in your room and what you like to do there.
4. Draw pictures depicting the things you plan to do during our spring vacation. Under each picture write a sentence in the future explaining your plans.

Drawing What Is Described: By writing a paragraph in which the lexical items being tested are used, the teacher can test reading comprehension. Rather than have the students translate the paragraph or answer questions about it, the teacher can ask the students to draw a picture illustrating the paragraph. The paragraphs can be written with the verbs in various tenses. These are easy to grade because the teacher has only to look at the picture. (As a listening comprehension exercise, the paragraph can be read rather than written.) The teacher's creativity comes into play in the invention of a logical paragraph incorporating current and recycled vocabulary. On a test, the text would appear only in the target language. The English gloss is included here for information.

1. La familia Zepol es muy rara. El padre es muy alto y tiene bigote. La madre es baja y gorda. Lleva una falda muy corta. El hijo mayor tiene ojos grandes y toca la guitarra. El hijo menor tiene orejas pequeñas y lleva anteojos. La hija mayor tiene pelo rizado y pies enormes. La hija menor, la pobre Lola, tiene dos narices. Dibuja la familia Zepol.

The Zepol family is very strange. The father is very tall and has a mustache, and the mother is short and fat. She is wearing a short skirt. The older son has big eyes

and plays the guitar. The younger son has small ears and wears glasses. The older daughter has curly hair and enormous feet. The younger daughter, poor Lola, has two noses. Draw the Zepol family.

2. Dibuja una casa. Esta casa tiene dos ventanas y una puerta. Hay flores enfrente de la casa y un árbol a la izquierda, cerca de la acera. La casa tiene dos chimeneas. Dibuja un gato sobre el techo, entre las dos chimeneas. Dibuja dos pájaros en el cielo cerca del árbol. Hay una chica dentro de la casa. Ella mira por la ventana.

Draw a house. The house has two windows and a door. There are flowers in front of the house and a tree to the left, near the sidewalk. The house has two chimneys. Draw a cat on the roof between the two chimneys. Draw two birds in the sky near the tree. There is a girl in the house. She is looking out the window.

3. Cuando Pablo salió de la casa ayer, eran las ocho de la mañana. Había muchas nubes grises y estaba lloviznando. A las nueve en punto se estalló una tormenta muy grande. El cielo se iluminó con la luz de un rayo y poco después comenzó a llover. Pablo llevaba un impermeable y botas. Así que el mal tiempo no le molestó nada. Haga un dibujo o una serie de dibujos para ilustrar la escena.

When Paul left the house yesterday, it was 8 AM. There were a lot of grey clouds, and it was drizzling. At exactly 9 o'clock, a big storm broke out. The sky was lit by the light of a lightning bolt, and shortly afterwards, it began to rain. Paul was wearing a raincoat and boots, so

the bad weather didn't bother him at all. Make a drawing or series of drawings to illustrate the scene.

Responding to Pictures: The testing items which follow do not require artistic creativity on the part of the students. They are included here because they do involve the use of pictures or drawings on the test. The drawings may be produced through the artistic creativity of the teacher or by photocopying pictures from the text or elsewhere. On the most basic level, the students can simply label items as in the section above, such as the food on a salad bar, the parts of the body, the dishes and silverware in a place setting, etc. On a more advanced level, the students can be asked to describe a drawing which is reproduced on the test. Many textbooks have pictures that illustrate vocabulary from the chapter and can be used for this type of exercise. Students can be asked to describe a scene, to describe pictures of people, to compare pictures of people or objects with different characteristics, to express likes and dislikes, and many other similar tasks. As mentioned previously,the use of visuals provides a framework to organize the students' thoughts and to guide their compostion. Pictures can be used as organizers to guide compositions on a test just as they are used for conversation aids or homework assignments. Students can be asked to write dialogues to accompany a series of pictures, to fill in the balloons on cartoons, to arrange pictures in a logical order and write about them, to retell a story based on the pictures given, etc. Most of the strategies used as part of the classroom activities can also be incorporated into the testing format. For example:

1. Describe the positions of the people and animals in the picture.

2. (Pictures of people engaged in various activities.) Write sentences in the imperfect to describe what these people used to do as children.

3. Look at the map below and write the directions to go from the bank to the post office. (Use a partial map of your community with places familiar to the students.)

4. This is Paco. Paco received all F's at midterm for the last grading period. Paco's parents have threatened to send him to work on a llama ranch if he doesn't shape up. Paco has decided to reform, but he doesn't know exactly what went wrong. First, using impersonal expressions, such as "it is possible" and "it is obvious", make at least five observations as to Paco had academic difficulties. Second, using verbs such as "to suggest" and "to recommend", write five suggestions as to what Paco can do to improve. Do not repeat the same ideas in the two groups of sentences.

5. This is Fulana de Tal. She has decided to go job hunting. Finish the sentences below with some suggestions to help her.

   I suggest that. . .
   I recommend that. . .
   It is necessary for her. . .

I doubt that. . .
I believe that. . .

6. (A series of pictures telling a story.) Write a story to accompany these pictures. Connect your sentences with words such as *first, next, later,* etc.

7. (Pictures of people engaged in various activities.)

Write a paragraph describing what this group of friends did yesterday and why.

8. (A bank scene with two bank robbers). Yesterday two thieves entered this bank to rob it. Write a paragraph of approximately 100 words describing the thoughts of the other people in the bank; why the men decided to rob the bank, and what they planned to do with the money; and what happened next. Was the robbery successful? Did someone sound the alarm? Did the police arrive in time? Were there hostages? Use your imagination. Most of your verbs should not be in the present tense.

LINGUISTIC CREATIVITY

The test items illustrated in the first part of this article involve a visual stimulus, whether it is provided to the students or drawn by them. In most cases, the students were permitted to exercise a degree of linguistic creativity. In other words, there were often several correct answers. In the series of test suggestions which follow, this same principle continues. The students are guided by the teacher concerning the type of answer desired, but the exact answer will vary from student to student. In some cases the degree of creativity will be slight. Indeed, some may say that the sentences are little more than pure translation sentences. Nevertheless, the students are free to change the wording and to substitute vocabulary. The fact that the directions are not "Translate the following sentences", but rather "Tell me" establishes a more communicative mind set. The teacher who is concerned that the students cannot figure out anything to say can give an example in English of a possible answer. The teacher's example will probably be translated by some of the students. Since the teacher will have suggested the preferred structure, such responses are certainly admissible.

Once again, it is important to mention that similar sentences will have been practiced in class and/or given as homework before appearing on a test. A series of sentences on a test would reflect the vocabulary and structures of a particular unit and should be related logically to one another. The examples which follow are not all from one test, but are ideas for testing several different structures.

Tell me

1. . . . where your parents live
2. . . . where your grandparents are from
3. . . . what color your house is
4. . . . how many students are in this class
5. . . . how much money you have in the bank
6. . . . what you did last weekend
7. . . . what you brought to class with you today
8. . . . where you were at 6 o'clock this morning
9. . . . what you did on Saturdays when you were ten.
10. . . . that you hope to get a good grade on this test

The same format can be used to elicit questions from the students by using "Ask me" rather than "Tell me". The format can be varied to include "ask" or "tell" someone else, such as "Tell your parents why you need more money."

Sentence Completion: Having students complete sentences which are begun for them by the teacher is nothing new. However, the technique can be effective and may allow the students to write creatively. After all, it really does not matter if the students say "My shoes are black" or "My shoes are white." In the past, students were constantly frustrated because they never learned how to say anything that they wanted to say, and were forced to translate sentences such as "The contented brown cows were eating oats in the old, wooden barn." Recent textbooks have much more relevant vocabulary and many exercises which allow the students to be creative and which encourage divergent answers. Many of the exercises in today's texts attempt to create meaningful context. Therefore, the teacher should also attempt meaningful context on tests. If the teacher plans to include "finish-the-sentence" type questions on a test, the sentences should all relate to a particular context and have relevance to the lives of the students. In the example which follows, a context is established, and the sentences all relate to this single theme. Only five sentence fragments are included in the example. The number can vary according to the wishes of the teacher as to the length of the test and whether this example would comprise the whole exam or only a portion of it.

Ed and Claire are engaged. They plan to get married right after graduation even though neither one has a job. Finish the sentences giving your thoughts on their situation.

1. Ed's parents doubt that. . .
2. Claire's parents are sure that. . .
3. Ed and Claire know that. . .
4. It is probable that. . .
5. They are looking for an apartment that. . .

In the example above, it can be seen that the use of the subjunctive will be tested. The beginning of the sentence can be in English to test lexical items such as "doubt" and "probable", or the entire exercise can be in the target language. As an extended exercise, a wide range of subjunctive uses and tenses can be incorporated as the saga of Ed and Claire unfolds. The vocabulary used by the students can vary, thus reinforcing the concept that there is not always only one correct answer. In a grammar-translation test item, such as "Ed and Claire didn't want Ed's parents to lend them money," the students who could not remember the verb "to lend" would fail to complete the sentence even though they might well have known that the correct verb form would be the past subjunctive--the point being tested. In completion items, it is possible to test grammar points more independently.

GUIDELINES

There are some guidelines necessary for allowing creativity on the part of the students. The teacher must specify in the directions exactly what is to be done. For example, if the students are asked to draw and label, the directions must specify how many items are to be included for credit, whether or not there will be bonus points for extra items, how many bonus points will be possible, and whether or not the article is to be included with the noun. Even though it should be obvious, the directions should include the statement that the labeling is to be done in the target language. If there is the possibility that the students' drawings will be unrecognizable, ask that the picture be labeled in both languages. This extra step is only advisable if, for example, students have been asked to draw animals which make certain sounds. When asking for the students to write paragraphs or to complete sentences, it is important to mention the tense which is to be used, the necessity of using a certain number of different verbs, etc. A statement such as "Please use a different verb in each sentence" will generally suffice. The more often these types of items are used in classroom activities and appear on tests, the more familiar the students will be with the expected guidelines. At first it will be necessary to reassure the students that artistic ability is not being graded. If the teacher includes drawings which are obviously of amateur quality, the students will not be intimidated. Secondly, it is wise to train the students to paraphrase and to think of all of the different ways in which a question could be answered. For example, the response to the item "Ask me if I'm married" could be "Are you married?" or "Are you single?" or "Do you have a spouse?". Paraphrasing and circumlocution are essential communication skills for beginning and intermediate language learners who will not always know the exact words they would like to use.

The testing suggestions given are designed for a particular situation. These are test items for those occasions when purely written testing is desired. These testing strategies are suitable for large classes and can be adapted for many other purposes. The use of pictures to test vocabulary is particularly appropriate for lower levels when students typically are introduced to groups of lexical items with a common theme, such as food, articles of clothing, parts of the body, animals, etc. Using pictures as a basis for writing sentences and compositions is appropriate at all levels. Through the use of visual stimuli, students can be encouraged to relate the target language to the actual object or situation rather than to engage in a sort of filtering process through the native language. In addition, the use of pictures and of test items which ask for completions or original sentences rather than translations reinforce the concept that there are many ways to say the same thing. It is essential that students learn to look for different ways to express their ideas. If the ability to circumlocute is one of the goals in the classroom, then there should be opportunities for circumlocution on the tests also. By being creative, teachers can design testing strategies which mirror the strategies used in classroom activities and, therefore, which test those linguistic behaviors that have been encouraged throughout the instructional period.

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